

A

HISTORY

OF THE

EARTH,

AND

ANIMATED NATURE.

IN FOUR VOLUMES.

BY OLIVER GOLDSMITH.

VOL. III.

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HISTORY OF ANIMALS.

BOOK VII.—CONTINUED.

CHAP. VI.

THE CAMEL AND THE DROMEDARY.*

THESE names do not make two distinct kinds, but are only given to a variety of the same animal, which has however, subsisted time immemorial. The principal, and perhaps the only sensible difference, by which those two races are distinguished, consists in this, that the camel has two bunches upon his back, whereas the dromedary has but one; the latter, also, is neither so large, nor so strong, as the camel. These two races, however, produce with each other, and the mixed breed formed between them is considered the best, the most patient, and the most indefatigable of all the kind.

Of the two varieties, the dromedary is by far the most numerous, the camel being scarcely found, except in Turkey, and the countries of the Levant; while the other is found spread over all the deserts of Arabia, the southern parts of Africa, Persia, Tartary, and a great part of the eastern Indies. Thus, the one inhabits an immense tract of country, the other, in comparison, is confined to a province; the one inhabits the sultry countries of the Torrid Zone, the other delights in a warm, but not a burning climate; neither, however, can subsist, or propagate, in the variable climates towards the north; they seem formed for those countries where shrubs are plenty, and water scarce; where they can travel along the sandy desert without being

* These quadrupeds have six front teeth in the lower jaw, which are rather thin and broad: the canine teeth are a little remote from the rest; in the upper jaw there are three, in the lower, two: the upper lip divided; and there are no horns.

impeded by rivers, and find food at expected distances; such a country is Arabia, and this, of all others, seems the most adapted to the support and production of this animal.

The camel is the most temperate of all animals, and it can continue to travel several days without drinking. In those vast deserts, where the earth is every where dry and sandy, where there are neither birds nor beasts, neither insects nor vegetables, where nothing is to be seen but hills of sand and heaps of stone, there the camel travels, posting forward, without requiring either drink or pasture, and is often found six or seven days without any sustenance whatever. Its feet are formed for travelling upon sand, and utterly unfit for moist or marshy places; the inhabitants, therefore, find a most useful assistant in this animal, where no other could subsist, and by its means cross those deserts with safety, which would be unpassable by any other method of conveyance.

An animal, thus formed for a sandy and desert region, cannot be propagated in one of a different nature. Many vain efforts have been tried to propagate the camel in Spain; they have been transported into America, but have multiplied in neither. It is true, indeed, that they may be brought into these countries, and may, perhaps, be found to produce there; but the care of keeping them is so great, and the occasions in which they are exposed, from the changeableness of the climate, are so many, that they cannot answer the care of keeping. In a few years also they are seen to degenerate; their strength and their patience forsake them; and instead of making the riches, they become the burden of their keepers.

But it is very different in Arabia, and those countries where the camel is turned to useful purposes. It is there considered as a sacred animal, without whose help the natives could neither submit, traffic, or travel; its milk makes a part of their nourishment; they feed upon its flesh, particularly when young; they clothe themselves with its hair, which it is seen to moult regularly once a year; and if they fear an invading enemy their camels serve them in flight, and in a single day they are known to travel above a hundred miles. Thus, by means of the camel, an Arabian finds safety in his deserts; all the armies upon earth might be lost in the pursuit of a flying squadron of this country.

mounted upon their camels, and taking refuge in solitudes, where nothing interposes to stop their flight, or to force them to wait the invader. Nothing can be more dreary than the aspect of these sandy plains, that seem entirely forsaken of life and vegetation: wherever the eye turns nothing is presented but a steril and dusty soil, sometimes torn up by the winds, and moving in great waves along, which, when viewed from an eminence, resembles less the earth than the ocean; here and there a few shrubs appear, that only teach us to wish for the grove—that remind us of the shade in these sultry climates, without affording its refreshment: the return of morning, which, in other places carries an idea of cheerfulness, here serves only to enlighten the endless and dreary waste, and to present the traveller with an unfinished prospect of his forlorn situation: yet in this chasm of nature, by the help of the camel, the Arabian finds safety and subsistence. There are here and there found spots of verdure, which, though remote from each other, are, in a manner, approximated by the labour and industry of the camel. Thus these deserts, which present the stranger with nothing but subjects of danger and sterility, afford the inhabitant protection, food, and liberty. The Arabian lives independent and tranquil in the midst of his solitudes; and, instead of considering the vast solitudes spread round him as a restraint upon his happiness, he is, by experience, taught to regard them as the ramparts of his freedom.

The camel is easily instructed in the methods of taking up and supporting his burden; their legs, a few days after they are produced, are bent under their belly; they are in this manner loaded, and taught to rise; their burden is every day thus increased, by insensible degrees, till the animal is capable of supporting a weight adequate to its force; the same care is taken in making them patient of hunger and thirst: while other animals receive their food at stated times, the camel is restrained for days together, and these intervals of famine are increased in proportion as the animal seems capable of sustaining them. By this method of education they live five or six days without food or water; and their stomach is formed most admirably by nature to fit them for long abstinence; besides the four stomachs, which all animals have that chew the cud, (and the camel is of the number,) it has a fifth stomach, which serves as a reservoir, to

hold a greater quantity of water than the animal has on immediate occasion for. It is not of sufficient capacity to contain a large quantity of water, where the fluid remains without corrupting, or without being adulterated by the other elements; when the camel finds itself pressed with thirst, it has here an easy resource for quenching it; it throws up a quantity of this water, by a simple contraction of the muscles, into the other stomachs, and this serves to macerate its dry and simple food; in this manner, as it drinks but seldom, it takes in a large quantity at a time, and travellers, when straitened for water, have been often known to kill their camels for that which they expected to find within them.

In Turkey, Persia, Arabia, Barbary, and Egypt, their whole commerce is carried on by means of camels; and no carriage is more speedy, and none less expensive, in these countries. Merchants and travellers unite themselves into a body, furnished with camels, to secure themselves from the insults of the robbers that infest the countries in which they live. This assemblage is called a *caravan*, in which the numbers are sometimes known to amount to above ten thousand, and the number of camels is often greater than those of the men: each of these animals is loaded according to his strength, and he is so sensible of it himself, that when his burden is too great, he remains still upon his belly, the posture in which he was laden, refusing to rise, till his burden be lessened or taken away. In general, the large camels are capable of carrying a thousand weight, and sometimes twelve hundred; the dromedary, from six to seven. In these travelling journeys, they travel but slowly, their stages are generally regulated, and they seldom go above thirty, or at most about five and thirty miles a day. Every evening, when they arrive at a stage, which is usually some spot in verdure, where water and shrubs are in plenty, they are permitted to feed at liberty; they are then seen to eat as much in an hour as will supply them for twenty-four; they seem to prefer the coarsest weeds to the softest pasture: the thistle, the nettle, the cassia, and other prickly vegetables, are their favourite food; but their drivers take care to supply them with a kind of paste composition, which serves as a more permanent nourishment. As these animals have often gone the same track, they are said to know their way

precisely, and to pursue their passage when their guides are utterly astray; when they come within a few miles of their baiting-place, in the evening, they sagaciously scent it at a distance, and increasing their speed, are often seen to trot with vivacity to their stage.

The patience of this animal is most extraordinary; and it is probable that its sufferings are great; for when it is loaded, it sends forth most lamentable cries, but never offers to resist the tyrant that oppresses it. At the slightest sign it bends its knees and lies upon its belly, suffering itself to be loaded in this position; by this practice the burden is more easily laid upon it than if lifted up while standing; at another sign it rises with its load, and the driver getting upon its back, between the panniers, which, like hampers, are placed upon each side, he encourages the camel to proceed with his voice and with a song. In this manner the creature proceeds contentedly forward with a slow uneasy walk, of about four miles an hour, and when it comes to its stage lies down to be unloaded as before.*

Mr. Buffon seems to consider the camel to be the most domesticated of all other creatures, and to have more marks of the tyranny of man imprinted on its form. He is of opinion that this animal is not now to be found in a state of nature; that the humps on its back, the callosities upon its breast and its legs, and even the great reservoir for water, are all marks of long servitude and domestic constraint. The deformities he supposes to be perpetuated by generation; and what at first was accident at last becomes nature. However this be, the humps upon the back grow large in proportion as the animal is well fed, and if examined, they will be found composed of a substance not unlike the udder of cow.

The inhabitants generally leave but one male to wait on ten females, the rest they castrate; and though they thus become weaker, they are more manageable and patient. The female receives the male in the same position as when these animals are loaded; she goes with young for about a year,

* Mr. Sonnini says, he has sometimes seen them weary of the impatience of their riders, stop short, turn round their long necks to bite them, and utter cries of rage. In these circumstances the man must be careful not to alight, as he would infallibly be torn to pieces; he must also refrain from striking his beast; as that would but increase his fur

and like all other great animals, produces but one at a time. The camel's milk is abundant and nourishing, and mixed with water makes a principal part of the beverage of the Arabians. These animals begin to engender at three years of age, and they ordinarily live from forty to fifty years. The genital part of the male resembles that of the bull, but is placed pointing backwards, so that its urine seems to be ejected in the manner of the female. This, as well as the dung, and almost every part of this animal, is converted to some useful purpose by the keepers. Of the urine, sal ammoniac is made; of the dung, litter for the horses, and fire for the purpose of dressing their victuals. Thus, this animal alone seems to comprise within itself a variety of qualities, any one of which serves to render other quadrupeds absolutely necessary for the welfare of man: like the elephant, it is manageable and tame; like the horse, it gives the rider security; it carries greater burdens than the ox or the mule, and its milk is furnished in as great abundance as that of the cow; the flesh of the young ones is supposed to be as delicate as veal; their hair is more beautiful, and more in request, than wool; while even of its very excrements no part is useless.

CHAP. VII.

THE LAMA.

As almost all the quadrupeds of America are smaller than the resembling ones of the ancient continent, so the Lama, which may be considered as the camel of the new world, is every way less than that of the old. This animal, like that described in the former chapter, stands high upon its legs, has a long neck, a small head, and resembles the camel, not only in its natural mildness, but its aptitude for servitude, its moderation, and its patience. The Americans early found out its useful qualities, and availed themselves of its labours: like the camel, it serves to carry goods over places inaccessible to other beasts of burden; like that, it is obedient to its driver; and often dies under, but never resists, his cruelty.

Of these animals, some are white, others black, but they are mostly brown; its face resembles that of the camel,

and its height is about equal to that of an ass. They are not found in the ancient continent, but entirely belong to the new; nor are they found spread over all America, but are found chiefly upon those mountains that stretch from New Spain to the Straits of Magellan. They inhabit the highest regions of the globe, and seem to require purer air than animals of a lower situation are found to enjoy. Peru seems to be the place where they are found in greatest plenty. In Mexico they are introduced rather as curiosities than beasts of burden; but in Potosi, and other provinces of Peru, they make the chief riches of the Indians and Spaniards who rear them: their flesh is excellent food; their hair, or rather wool, may be spun into beautiful clothing; and they are capable, in the most rugged and dangerous ways, of carrying burdens, not exceeding a hundred weight, with the greatest safety. It is true, indeed, that they go but slowly, and seldom above fifteen miles a day; their tread is heavy, but sure; they descend precipices, and find footing among the most craggy rocks, where even men can scarcely accompany them: they are, however, but feeble animals, and after four or five days' labour they are obliged to repose for a day or two. They are chiefly used in carrying the riches of the mines of Potosi; and we are told that there are above three hundred thousand of these animals in actual employ.

This animal, as was said before, is above three feet high, and the neck is three feet long, the head is small and well proportioned, the eyes large, the nose long, the lips thick, the upper divided, and the lower a little depending; like all those animals that feed upon grass, it wants the upper cutting teeth; the ears are four inches long, and move with great agility; the tail is but five inches long, it is small, straight, and a little turned up at the end; it is cloven-footed like the ox, but it has a kind of spear-like appendage behind, which assists it in moving over precipices and rugged ways; the wool on the back is short; but long on the sides and the belly; it resembles the camel in the formation of the genital parts in the male, so that it makes urine backwards; it couples also in the same manner, and though it finds much difficulty in the action, it is said to be much inclined to venery. A whole day is often passed before this necessary business can be completed, which is spent in growling, quarrelling, and

spitting at each other ; they seldom produce above one at a time, and their age never extends above ten or twelve years at farthest.

Though the lama is no way comparable to the camel, either for size, strength, or perseverance, yet the Americans find a substitute in it, with which they seem perfectly contented. It appears formed for that indolent race of nations which it is obliged to serve ; it requires no care, nor no expense in the attending or providing for its sustenance ; it is supplied with a warm covering, and therefore does not require to be housed ; satisfied with vegetables and grass, it wants neither corn nor hay to subsist it ; it is not less moderate in what it drinks, and exceeds even the camel in temperance. Indeed, of all other creatures, it seems to require water least, as it is supplied by nature with saliva in such large quantities, that it spits it out on every occasion ; this saliva seems to be the only offensive weapon that the harmless creature has to testify its resentment. When overloaded or fatigued, and driven on by all the torturing acts of its keeper, it falls on its belly, and pours out against him a quantity of this fluid ; which, though probably no way hurtful, the Indians are much afraid of. They say, that wherever it falls, it is of such an acrimonious nature that it will either burn the skin, or cause very dangerous eruptions.

Such are these animals in their domestic state ; but as they are found wild in very great numbers, they exhibit marks of great force and agility in their state of nature. The stag is scarcely more swift, or the goat or the shamoy a better climber. All its shapes are more delicate and strong ; its colour is tawny, and its wool is but short ; in their native forests, they are gregarious animals, and are often seen in flocks of two or three hundred at a time. When they perceive a stranger, they regard him at first with astonishment, without marking any fear or surprise ; but shortly, as if by common consent, they snuff up the air, somewhat like horses, and at once, by a common flight, take refuge on the tops of the mountains ; they are fonder of the northern than the southern side of the Andes ; they often climb above the snowy tracts of the mountain, and seem vigorous in proportion to the coldness of their situation. The natives hunt the wild lama for the sake

of its fleece. If the dogs surprise one upon the plain, they are generally successful ; but if once the lama obtains the rocky precipice of the mountain, the hunters are obliged to desist in their pursuit.

The lama seems to be the largest of the camel kind in America ; there are others, which are called GUANACOE and PACOE, that are smaller and weaker, but endued with the same nature, and formed pretty much in the same manner. They seem to bear the same proportions to each other, that the horse does to the ass, and are employed with the same degree of subordination. The wool, however, of the paco, seems to be the most valuable, and it is formed into stuffs not inferior to silk, either in price or beauty. The natural colour of the paco, is that of a dried rose leaf ; the manufacturers seldom give its wool any other dye, but form it into quilts and carpets, which exceed those from the Levant. This manufacture forms a very considerable branch of commerce in South America, and probably, too, might be extended to Europe, were the beauty and the durability of what is thus wrought up sufficiently known.

CHAP. VIII.

THE NYL-GHAU.*

THIS animal, the name of which is pronounced *nylgaw*, is a native of India, and has but lately been imported into Europe ; it seems to be of a middle nature, between the cow and the deer, and carries the appearance of both in its form. In its size, it is as much smaller than the one, as it is larger than the other ; its body, horns, and tail, are not unlike those of a bull ; and the head, neck, and legs, are very like those of a deer. The colour, in general, is ash or gray, from a mixture of black hairs and white ; all along the ridge or edge of the neck, the hair is blacker, larger, and more erect, making a short, thin, and upright mane. Its horns are seven inches long ; they are six inches round at the root ; growing smaller by degrees, they terminate in a blunt point. The bluntness of these, together with the form of its head

* This quadruped is a species of antelope : the horns are inclining to a triangular form ; and the feet are barred with black and white.

ond neck, might incline us to suppose it was of the deer kind; but, as it never sheds its horns, it has o greater offinity to the cow.

From the disposition of that brought over to this country, which has been very occurately ond minutely described by Dr. Hunter, their monners are harmless ond gentle. Although in its native wildness it is said to be fierce ond vicious, this seemed pleased with every kind of familiarity, ond olways licked the hond that stroked or gave it bread, and never once attempted to use its horns offensively; it seemed to have much dependence on its organs of smell, and snuffed keenly, and with noise, whenever ony person came within aight; it did so likewise when any food or drink was brought to it; ond was so easily offended with smells, or so cautious, that it would not taste the bread which was offered, when the hand happened to smell atrong of turpentine. Its manner of fighting is very particular. It was observed at Lord Clive's, where two males were put into a little enclosure, that, while they were ot o considerable distance from each other, they prepared for the ottack, by falling upon their fore-knees, then they shuffled towards each other with a quick pace, keeping still upon their fore-knees; and when they were come within some yards, they made a spring, and darted oagainst each other. The intrepidity and force with which they dart oagainst ony object, appeared by the strength with which one of them attempted to overturn o poor labourer, who unthinkingly stood on the outside of the pales of its enclosure. The nyl-ghau, with the quickness of lightning, darted against the wood-work with such violence, that he broke it to pieces, ond broke off one of his horns close to the root, which occasioned the animal's death. At all the places in India, where we have settlements, they are considered as rarities, and brought from the distant interior parts of the couotry. The Emperor, sometimes, kills them in such numbers, os to distribute quarters of them to all his omrahs; which shews that they are internally wild ond in plenty, and esteemed good and delicious food. The nyl-ghaus which have been brought to Eogland, have been most, if not oll of them, received from Surat or Bombay; ood they seem to be less uncommon in that part of India, than in Bengal; which gives room for a conjecture, that they may be indigenous perhaps in the pro-

vince of Guzarat, one of the most western and most considerable of the Hindostan empire, lying to the northward of Surat, and stretching away to the Indian ocean.

CHAP. IX.

THE BEAR.*

OF the Bear there are three different kinds, the Brown Bear of the Alps, the Black Bear of North America, which is smaller, and the great Greenland or White Bear. These, though different in their forms, are no doubt of the same original, and owe their chief variations to food and climate. They have all the same habitudes, being equally carnivorous, treacherous, and cruel. It has been said, indeed, that the black bear of America rejects animal food; but of the contrary I am certain, as I have often seen the young ones, which are brought over to London, prefer flesh to every kind of vegetable aliment.

The BROWN BEAR is properly an inhabitant of the temperate climates; the black finds subsistence in the northern regions of Europe and America; while the great white bear takes refuge in the most icy climates, and lives where scarcely any other animal can find subsistence.

The brown bear † is not only savage, but solitary; he takes refuge in the most unfrequented parts, and the most dangerous precipices of uninhabited mountains. It chooses its den in the most gloomy parts of the forest, in some cavern that has been hollowed by time, or in the hollow of some old enormous tree. There it retires alone, and passes some months of the winter without provisions, or without ever stirring abroad. However, this animal is not entirely

* The animals of this kind, including the Racoon, Wolverene, Glutton, and Badger, have six front teeth in each jaw; the two lateral ones of the lower jaw are longer than the rest, and lobed, and are likewise furnished with smaller or secondary teeth at their internal bases: the canine teeth are single; there are five or six grinders on each side; the first of which is placed close to the canine teeth: the tongue is smooth; the snout projecting; and the eyes furnished with a nictitant or winking membrane. The soles of the feet are long, and extend to the heel; some use their fore paws as hands, and they are all able to climb trees in search of prey, or to avoid an enemy.

† Buffon.

deprived of sensation, like the bat or the dormouse, out seems rather to subsist upon the exuberance of its former flesh, and only feels the calls of appetite, when the fat it had acquired in summer begins to be entirely wasted away. In this manner, when the bear retires to its den, to hide for the winter, it is extremely fat; but at the end of forty or fifty days, when it comes forth to seek for fresh nourishment, it seems to have slept all its flesh away. It is a common report, that during this time they live by sucking their paws, which is a vulgar error that scarcely requires confutation. These solitary animals couple in autumn, but the time of gestation with the female is still unknown: the female takes great care to provide a proper retreat for her young; she secures them in the hollow of a rock, and provides a bed of hay in the warmest part of her den; she brings forth in winter, and the young ones begin to follow her in spring. The male and female by no means inhabit the same den; they have each their separate retreat, and seldom are seen together but upon the accesses of genial desire.

The voice of the bear is a kind of growl, interrupted with rage, which is often capriciously exerted; and though this animal seems gentle and placid to its master, when tamed, yet it is still to be distrusted and managed with caution, as it is often treacherous and resentful without a cause.

This animal is capable of some degree of instruction. There are few but have seen it dance in awkward measures upon its hind feet, to the voice or the instrument of its leader; and it must be confessed that the dancer is often found to be the best performer of the two. I am told, that it is first taught to perform in this manner, by setting it upon hot plates of iron, and then playing to it, while in this uneasy situation.

The bear, when come to maturity, can never be tamed; it then continues in its native fierceness, and, though caged, still formidably impotent, at the approach of its keeper flies to meet him. But notwithstanding the fierceness of this animal, the natives of those countries where it is found hunt it with great perseverance and alacrity. The least dangerous method of taking it is by intoxicating it, by throwing brandy upon honey, which it seems to be chiefly fond of, and seeks for in the hollow of trees. In Canada,

where the BLACK BEARS are very common, and where their dens are made in trees that are hollow towards the top, they are taken by setting fire to their retreats, which are often above thirty feet from the ground. The old one is generally seen first to issue from her den, and is shot by the hunters. The young ones as they descend are caught in a noose, and are either kept, or killed for provision. Their paws are said to be a great delicacy, and their hams are well enough known at the tables of the luxurious here. Their fat also, which still preserves a certain degree of fluidity, is supposed to be an efficacious remedy in white or indolent tumors, though probably very little superior to hog's lard.

The WHITE GREENLAND BEAR differs greatly, both in figure and dimensions, from those already described; and though it preserves in general the external form of its more southern kindred, yet it grows to above three times the size. The brown bear is seldom above six feet long; the white bear is often known from twelve to thirteen. The brown bear is made rather strong and sturdy, like the mastiff; the Greenland bear, though covered with very long hair, and apparently bulky, is nevertheless more slender, both as to the head, neck, and body, and more inclining to the shape of the greyhound. In short, all the variations of its figure and its colour, seem to proceed from the coldness of the climate where it resides, and the nature of the food it is supplied with.

The white bear seems the only animal, that by being placed in the coldest climate, grows larger than those that live in the temperate zones. All other species of animated nature diminish as they approach the poles, and seem contracted in their size by the rigours of the ambient atmosphere; but the bear, being unmolested in these desolate climates, and meeting no animal but what he can easily conquer, finding also a sufficient supply of fishy provisions, grows to an enormous size; and as the lion is the tyrant of an African forest, so the bear remains undisputed master of the icy mountains in Spitzbergen and Greenland. When our mariners land upon those shores, in such parts as have not been frequented before, the white bears come down to view them with an awkward curiosity; they approach slowly, seeming undetermined whether to advance or retreat, and being naturally a timorous animal, they are

only urged on by the conscious experience of their former victories; however, when they are shot at, or wounded, they endeavour to fly, or, finding that impracticable, they make a fierce and desperate resistance till they die. As they live upon fish and seals, their flesh is too strong for food, and the captors have nothing but the skin to reward them for the dangers incurred in the engagement.

The number of these animals that are found about the north pole, if we consider the scarcity there of all other terrestrial creatures, is very amazing. They are not only seen at land, but often on ice-floats, several leagues at sea. They are often transported in this manner to the very shores of Iceland, where they no sooner land, but all the natives are in arms to receive them. It often happens, that when a Greenlander and his wife are paddling out at sea, by coming too near an ice-float, a white bear unexpectedly jumps into their boat, and if he does not upset it, sits calmly where he first came down, and, like a passenger, suffers himself to be rowed along. It is probable the poor little Greenlander is not very fond of his new guest; however, he makes a virtue of necessity, and hospitably rows him to shore.

As this animal lives chiefly upon fish, seals, and dead whales, it seldom removes far from the shore. When forced by hunger, it often ventures into the deep, swims after seals, and devours whatever it can seize; it is, however, but a bad swimmer, and is often hunted in this manner by boats till it is fatigued, and at last destroyed. It often happens that a battle ensues between a bear and a morse or a whale; but as the latter are more expert in their own element, they generally prove victorious. However, when the bear can find a young whale, it repays him for the danger he incurs of meeting with the parent.

CHAP. X.

THE BADGER.

THE Badger's legs are so short, that its belly seems to touch the ground; this, however, is but a deceitful appearance, as it is caused by the length of the hair, which is very long all over the body, and makes it seem much more

bulky than it really is. It is a solitary stupid animal, that finds refuge remote from man, and digs itself a deep hole with great assiduity. It seems to avoid the light, and seldom quits its retreat by day, only stealing out at night to find subsistence. It burrows in the ground very easily, its legs being short and strong, and its claws stiff and horny. As it continues to bury itself, it throws the earth behind it to a great distance, and thus forms to itself a winding hole, at the bottom of which it remains in safety. As the fox is not so expert at digging into the earth, it often takes possession of that which has been quitted by the badger; and, some say, forces it from its retreat, by laying its excrement at the mouth of the badger's hole.

This animal, however, is not long in making itself a new habitation, from which it seldom ventures far, as it flies but slowly, and can find safety only in the strength of its retreat. When it is surprised by the dogs at some distance from its hole, it then combats with desperate resolution; it falls upon its back, defends itself on every side, and seldom dies unrevengeed in the midst of its enemies.

The badger, like the fox, is a carnivorous animal, and nothing that has life can come amiss to it. It sleeps the greatest part of its time, and thus, without being a voracious feeder, it still keeps fat, particularly in winter. They always keep their hole very clean; and when the female brings forth, she makes a comfortable warm bed of hay, at the bottom of her hole, for the reception of her young. She brings forth in summer, generally to the number of three or four, which she feeds at first with her milk, and afterwards with such petty prey as she can surprise. She seizes the young rabbits in their warren, robs birds' nests, finds out where the wild bees have laid up their honey, and brings all to her expecting brood.

The young ones when taken are easily tamed, but the old still continue savage and incorrigible; the former, after a short time, play with the dogs, follow their master about the house, but seem of all other animals the most fond of the fire. They often approach it so closely, that they burn themselves in a dangerous manner. They are sometimes also subject to the mange; and have a gland under their tail which scents pretty strongly. The poor of some countries eat their flesh; which, though fat, is at best but rank and ill tasted.

CHAP. XI.

THE TAPIR.*

THERE seems to be a rude, but an inferior resemblance, between many animals of the old and the new world. The cougar of America resembles the tiger in natural ferocity, though far inferior in its dimensions. The lama bears some affinity to the camel, but is far behind it in strength and utility. The tapir may be considered as the hippopotamus of the new continent, but degraded both as to its size and ferocity.

This animal bears some distant resemblance in its form to a mule. It has a long snout, which it lengthens or contracts at pleasure. Its ears are small, long, and pendant. Its neck and tail are short, and its claws strong and firm, of which it has four upon each foot. Its skin is thick, and covered with brown hair; and the natives make shields of it, which cannot be pierced by an arrow.

This animal may, in some measure, be termed amphibious, as it chiefly resides in the water. It differs, however, from all others of this kind, in feeding entirely upon vegetables, and not making this element the place of its depredations. It feeds upon the pastures by the river-side, and as it is very timorous, the instant it hears the least noise, it plunges into the stream. They are greatly sought after by the natives, as their flesh is considered as a delicacy, and thought by some not inferior to beef.

CHAP. XII.

THE RACON.

THE Racoon, which some authors have called the Jamaica rat, is about the size of a small badger; its body is short and bulky; its fur is fine, long, and thick, blackish at the surface, and gray towards the bottom; the nose is ra-

* The Tapir has ten front teeth in both jaws: the canine teeth are single in each jaw, and are bent inwards: there are five very broad grinders on each side in both jaws: the feet have three hoofs; but on the fore-feet is an additional false or supplementary hoof. Its general attitude, when at rest, is sitting on its rump. It sleeps much by day

ther shorter, and more pointed, than that of the fox; the eyes large and yellow; the teeth resembling those of a dog; the tail thick, but tapering towards a point regularly marked with rings of black, and at least as long as the body; the fore feet are much shorter than the hinder, both armed with five sharp claws, with which, and his teeth, the animal makes a vigorous resistance. Like the squirrel, it makes use of its paws to hold its food while eating, but it differs from the monkey kind, which uses but one hand on those occasions, whereas the racoon and the squirrel use both; as, wanting the thumb, their paws singly are unfit for grasping or holding. Though this animal be short and bulky it is however very active; its pointed claws enable it to climb trees with great facility; it runs on the trunk with the same swiftness that it moves upon the plain, and sports among the most extreme branches with great agility, security, and ease; it moves forward chiefly by bounding, and though it proceeds in an oblique direction, it has speed enough most frequently to escape its pursuers.

This animal is a native of the southern parts of America, nor have any travellers mentioned its being found in the ancient continent. But in the climates of which it is a native, it is found in noxious abundance, particularly in Jamaica, where it keeps in the mountains, and where it often descends to feed upon the plantations of sugar-cane. The planters of these climates consider these animals as one of their greatest miseries; they have contrived various methods of destroying them, yet still they propagate in such numbers that neither traps nor fire-arms can set them free; so that a swarm of these famished creatures are found to do more injury in a single night than the labours of a month can repair.

But though, when wild, they are thus troublesome, in a state of tameness no animal is more harmless or amusing; they are capable of being instructed in various little amusing tricks. The racoon is playful and cleanly, and is very easily

and when attacked by dogs makes a vigorous resistance. Its voice is a kind of whistle, so easily imitated, that, in this manner, it is frequently trepanned. It produces but one young at a birth, of which it is very careful, leading it early to the water to instruct it in swimming. It is gregarious, feeds by night on vegetables, and does not ruminate, as Mr. Bajon affirms.

supported; it eats of every thing that is given it, and, if left to itself, no cat can be a better provider; it examines every corner, eats of all flesh, either boiled or raw, eggs, fruits, or corn; insects themselves cannot escape it, and, if left at liberty in a garden, it will feed upon snails, worms, and beetles; but it has a particular fondness for sweets of every kind, and to be possessed of these, in its wild state, it incurs every danger. Though it will eat its provisions dry, it will for choice dip them in water, if it happens to be in the way. It has one peculiarity which few others have been found to possess—it drinks as well by lapping like a dog as by sucking like the horse.

CHAP. XIII.

THE COATIMONDI.

THE first peculiarity with which this animal strikes the spectator, is the extreme length of its snout, which, in some measure, resembles that of the hog, but elongated to a surprising degree; it bears some distant resemblance to the animal last described, except that the neck and the body are longer, the fur shorter, and the eyes smaller; but its principal distinction, as was said before, consists in the shape of its nose; the upper jaw being an inch longer than the lower, and the snout, which is movable in every direction, turning up at the end. Like the racoon, it sits up on the hinder legs with great ease, and, in this position, with both paws carries the food to its mouth.

This animal is very subject to eat its own tail, which is rather longer than its body: but this strange appetite is not peculiar to the coati alone; the moroco, and some of the monkey kinds, do the same, and seem to feel no pain in wounding a part of the body so remote from the centre of circulation.

It seems possessed of the same playful qualities, and indiscriminate appetites, with the animal described in the last chapter; if left at liberty in a state of tameness, it will pursue the poultry, and destroy every living thing that it has strength to conquer; though it is playful with its keeper, yet it seems obstinately bent against receiving any instruction,

and neither threats nor caresses can induce it to practise any arts to which it is not naturally inclined. When it sleeps, it rolls itself up in a lump, and in that position often continues for fourteen or fifteen hours together.

CHAP. XIV.

THE ANT-BEAR.

THERE are many animals that live upon ants in Africa and America; the pangolin or scaly lizard of Guinea may be considered among this number; but there are a greater variety in America, which make those minute insects their only subsistence. Though they are of different figures and sizes, yet, in general, they go under one common name of the ant-bear; the peculiar length and slenderness of their snout, their singular appetites, and their manner of taking their prey, striking us too strongly to attend to the minute differences of their size or form.

They have been classed by Mr. Buffon into the **LARGER TAMANDUA**, the **SMALLER TAMANDUA**, and the **ANT-EATER**. The longest of this kind is four feet long, from the tip of the snout to the insertion of the tail; their legs are short, and armed with four strong claws; their tail is long and tufted, and the animal often throws it on its back like the squirrel. The second of this kind is not above eighteen inches long, the tail is without hair, and it sweeps the ground as the animal moves. The **ANT-EATER**, which is the third variety, is still smaller than either of the former, as it is not above seven inches from the tip of the snout to the insertion of the tail. The two former are of a brown dusky colour, but this of a beautiful reddish, mixed with yellow. Though they differ in figure, they all resemble each other in one peculiarity, which is the extreme slenderness of their snout, and the amazing length of their tongue.

The snout is produced in so disproportionate a manner, that the length of it makes near a fourth part of the whole figure. A horse has one of the longest heads of any animal we know, and yet the ant-bear has one above twice as long, in proportion to its body. The snout of this animal is

almost round and cylindrical ; it is extremely slender, and is scarcely thicker near the eyes than at its extremity. The mouth is very small, the nostrils are very close to each other, the eyes are little in proportion to the length of the nose, the neck is short, the tongue is extremely long, slender, and flattened on both sides ; this it keeps generally doubled up in the mouth, and is the only instrument by which it finds subsistence ; for the whole of this tribe are entirely without teeth, and find safety only in the remoteness and security of their retreat.

If we examine through the various regions of the earth, we shall find that all the most active, sprightly, and useful quadrupeds have been gathered round man, and either served his pleasures, or still maintained their independence by their vigilance, their cunning, or their industry. It is in the remote solitudes that we are to look for the helpless, the deformed, and the monstrous births of nature. These wretched animals, being incapable of defending themselves either by their agility or their natural arms, fall a prey to every creature that attacks them ; they, therefore, retire for safety into the darkest forests, or the more desert mountains, where none of the bolder or swifter animals choose to reside.

It may well be supposed that an animal so helpless as the ant-bear is, with legs too short to fit it for flight, and unprovided with teeth to give it a power of resistance, is neither numerous, nor often seen ; its retreats are in the most barren and uncultivated parts of South America. It is a native only of the new continent, and entirely unknown to the old. It lives chiefly in the woods, and hides himself under the fallen leaves. It seldom ventures from its retreat, and the industry of an hour supplies it with sufficient food for several days together. Its manner of procuring its prey is one of the most singular in all natural history : as its name implies, it lives entirely upon ants and insects ; these, in the countries where it is bred, are found in the greatest abundance, and often build themselves hills five or six feet high, where they live in community. When this animal approaches an ant-hill, it creeps slowly forward on its belly, taking every precaution to keep itself concealed till it comes within a proper distance of the place where it intends to make its banquet ; there lying closely along at its length,

it thrusts forth its round red tongue, which is often two feet long, across the path of these busy insects, and there lets it lie motionless for several minutes together. The ants of that country, some of which are half an inch long, considering it as a piece of flesh accidentally thrown before them, come forth and swarm upon it in great numbers: but wherever they touch they stick; for this instrument is covered with a slimy fluid, which, like bird-lime, entangles every creature that lights upon it. When, therefore, the ant-bear has found a sufficient number for one morsel, it instantly draws in the tongue, and devours them all in a moment; after which it still continues in its position, practising the same arts until its hunger is entirely appeased; it then retires to its hiding-place once more, where it continues in indolent existence till again excited by the calls of hunger.

Such is the luxurious life of a creature that seems, of all others, the most helpless and deformed. It finds safety in its hiding-places from its enemies, and an ample supply in some neighbouring ant-hill for all its appetites. As it only tries to avoid its pursuers it is seldom discovered by them; yet helpless as this animal is, when driven to an extremity, though without teeth, it will fight with its claws with great obstinacy. With these arms alone it has often been found to oppose the dog, and even the jaguar. It throws itself upon its back, fastens upon its enemy with all its claws, sticks with great strength and perseverance, and even after killing its invader, which is sometimes the case, does not quit its hold, but remains fastened upon it with vindictive desperation.

[Besides the animal here described, are others of the same kind; the most remarkable of which are, the little Ant-eater, or Fourmiller, and the prickly Ant-eater of New Holland.

The former is singular for its having only two toes on the fore feet, armed with strong claws; and a tail which it is able to coil round the branches of trees, and hold fast by. The claws on the fore feet are extremely disproportionate; the outer one being very large, and the inner one much smaller. The whole animal is clothed in a beautiful, soft, curled, pale yellow fur. It is a native of Guiana.

The prickly Ant-eater is a short, roundish animal, with a long tubular mouth, and entirely covered over on the upper parts with strong sharp spines, resembling those of the porcupine. Its tail is very short, and entirely concealed in the spines. The head, legs, and under-parts of the body, are thickly covered with a dark-brown harsh hair. On its

CHAP. XV.

THE SLOTH.

Of the Sloth there are two different kinds, distinguished from each other by their claws; the one, which in its native country is called the *unan*, having only two claws upon the fore feet, and being without a tail; the other, which is called the *ai*, having a tail, and three claws upon each foot. The *unan* has the snout longer, the ears more apparent, and the fur very different from the other. It differs also in the number of its ribs, this having forty-six, while the *ai* has but twenty-eight. These differences, however, which though very apparent, have been but little regarded in the description of two animals which so strongly resemble each other in the general outlines of their figure, in their appetites, and their helpless formation.

They are both, therefore, described under the common appellation of the Sloth, and their habits well deserve our wonder and curiosity. Nature seems cramped and constrained in their formation; other animals are often indolent from choice, these are slow from necessity. The *ai*, from which I shall take my description, and from which the other differs only in the slight particulars above mentioned, and in being rather more active, is of about the size of a badger. Its fur is coarse and staring, somewhat resembling dried grass; the tail very short, and scarcely appearing; the mouth extended from ear to ear; the eye dull and heavy; the feet armed with three claws each, and made so short, and act on so awkwardly, that a few paces is often the journey of a week; but though the feet are short, they are still longer than its legs, and these proceed from the body in such an oblique direction, that the sole of the foot seldom touches the ground. When the animal, therefore, is compelled to make a step forward, it scrapes on the back of the nails along the surface, and wheeling the limbs circularly about, yet still touching

fore feet are five strong claws, and four on the hinder. In its mode of life it resembles the rest of its tribe, being generally found in the midst of some large ant-hill. When disturbed, it burrows with great strength and dispatch under ground, during which exertion its body is lengthened out in a surprising manner.]

the ground, it at length places its foot in a progressive position; the other three limbs are all brought about with the same difficulty; and thus it is seen to move not above three feet in an hour. In fact, this poor creature seldom changes place but by constraint, and when impelled by the severest stings of hunger.

The sloth seems to be the meanest and most ill-formed of all those animals that chew the cud; it lives entirely upon vegetable food, on the leaves, the fruit, and the flowers, of trees, and often even on the very bark, when nothing else is left on the tree for its subsistence. Like all other ruminant animals, it has four stomachs; and these requiring a large share of provision to supply them, it generally strips a tree of all its verdure in less than a fortnight. Still, however, it keeps aloft, unwilling to descend, while any thing remains that can serve it for food; it therefore falls to devouring the bark, and thus, in a short time, kills the tree upon which it found its support. Thus destitute of provisions above, and crawling slowly from branch to branch in hopes of finding something still left, it is at last obliged to encounter all the dangers that attend it below. Though it is formed by nature for climbing a tree with great pain and difficulty, yet it is utterly unable to descend; it therefore is obliged to drop from the branches to the ground, and as it is incapable of exerting itself to break the violence of its descent, it drops like a shapeless heavy mass, and feels no small shock in the fall. There, after remaining some time torpid, it prepares for a journey to some neighbouring tree; but this of all migrations is the most tedious, dangerous, and painful; it often takes a week in crawling to a tree not fifty yards distant; it moves with imperceptible slowness, and often baits by the way. All motions seem to torture it, every step it takes it sets forth a most plaintive melancholy cry, which, from some distant similitude to the human voice, excites a kind of disgust, mixed with pity. This plaintive sound seems its chief defence; few quadrupeds appear willing to interrupt its progress, either that the flesh is offensive, or that they are terrified at its cries. When at length they reach their destined tree, they mount it with much greater ease than when they moved upon the plain. They fall to with famished appetite, and, as before, destroy the very source that supplies them.

How far these may be considered as the unfinished productions of nature I will not take upon me to determine; if we measure their happiness by our sensations, nothing, it is certain, can be more miserable; but it is probable, considered with regard to themselves, they may have some stores of comfort unknown to us, which may set them upon a level with some other inferior ranks of the creation; if a part of their life be exposed to pain and labour, it is compensated by a larger portion of plenty, indolence, and safety. In fact, they are formed very differently from all other quadrupeds, and it is probable they have different enjoyments. Like birds, they have but one common vent for the purposes of propagation, excrement, and urine. Like the tortoise, which they resemble in the slowness of their motion, they continue to live some time after their nobler parts are wounded, or even taken away. They bear the marks of all those homely-formed animals, that, like rude machines, are not easily discomposed.

Its note,* according to Kireher, is an ascending and descending hexachord, which it utters only by night; its look is so piteous as to move compassion; it is also accompanied with tears, that dissuade every body from injuring so wretched a being. Its abstinence from food is remarkably powerful; one that had fastened itself by its feet to a pole, and was so suspended across two beams, remained forty days without meat, drink, or sleep; the strength of its feet is so great, that whatsoever it seizes on cannot possibly be freed from its claws. A dog was let loose at the above-mentioned animal, taken from the pole; after some time the sloth laid hold of the dog with its feet, and held him four days, till he perished with hunger.

[In addition to the two here mentioned, another, and by far the largest of its kind, has lately been introduced to the notice of naturalists from India. This animal approaches in size and shape to that of the common bear, being clothed with a very long black shaggy hair. Its snout is a little elongated, and appears as if cut off at the end. The feet are all armed with five crooked pointed claws; and the tail is short, and hardly visible. In its motions, it was not, as in the others, slow and languid; but it appeared moderately lively, and made a kind of

* Pennant's Synopsia.

short abrupt roar when disturbed or irritated. It fed principally upon vegetables and milk, and was much delighted with honey and sweet things. It was said to burrow, and to have been dug out of its subterraneous retreat when first discovered.]

CHAP. XVI.

THE JERBOA.*

THIS animal as little resembles a quadruped as that which has been described in a former chapter. If we should suppose a bird, divested of its feathers, and walking upon its legs, it might give us some idea of its figure. It has four feet indeed, but in running, or resting, it never makes use of any but the hinder. The number of legs, however, do not much contribute to any animal's speed; and the jerboa, though, properly speaking, furnished but with two, is one of the swiftest creatures in the world.

The jerboa is not above the size of a large rat, and its head is sloped somewhat in the manner of a rabbit; the teeth also are formed like those of the rat kind, there being

* These curious animals have two front teeth in each jaw; the fore legs are very short, and the hind legs very long; they have perfect collar-bones. M. Sonnini, while he was in Egypt, fed for some time six of these animals in a large cage of iron wire. The very first night they entirely gnawed asunder the upright and cross sticks of their prison; and he was under the necessity of having the inside of the cage lined with tin. They were fond of basking in the sun, and as soon as they were placed in the shade, they clung close to each other, and seemed to suffer from the privation of warmth. They did not usually sleep during the day. Though they had much agility in their movements, gentleness and tranquillity seemed to form their character. They suffered themselves to be stroked with great composure, and never made a noise or quarrelled among themselves, even when food was scattered among them. No distinguishing symptoms of joy, fear, or gratitude, were discoverable; and even their gentleness was by no means either amiable or interesting; and appeared the effect of a cold and complete indifference, approaching to stupidity. Three of these died before he left Alexandria; two died on a rough passage to the Isle of Rhodes; and the last was lost, and, as he supposes, devoured by cats while he was on the island.

He observes, that they do not ruminate, and that it is difficult to transport them, on account of the quickness and facility with which they gnaw through the thickest and strongest boards.

two cutting-teeth in each jaw: it has a very long tail, tufted at the end; the head, the back, and sides, are covered with long ash-coloured soft hair; the breast and belly is whitish: but what most deserves our attention in the formation of this little animal is the legs; the fore legs are not an inch long, with four claws and a thumb upon each, while the hinder legs are two inches and a quarter, and exactly resemble those of a bird, there being but three toes, the middle-most of which is longest.

The jerboa is found in Egypt, Barbary, Palestine, and the deserts between Bussorah and Aleppo; its hind legs, as was said before, are only used in running, while the fore paws, like those of a squirrel, grasp its food, and in some measure perform the office of hands. It is often seen by travellers as they pass along the deserts, crossing their way, and jumping six or eight feet at every bound, and going so swiftly that scarcely any other quadruped is able to overtake them. They are a lively harmless race of animals, living entirely upon vegetables, and burrowing like rabbits in the ground. Mr. Pennant tells us of two that were lately brought to London that burrowed almost through the brick wall of the room where they were kept; they came out of their hole at night for food, and, when caught, were much fatter and sleeker than when confined to their burrows. A variety of this animal is found also in Siberia and Circassia, and is, most probably, common enough over all Asia. They are more expert diggers than even the rabbit itself; and when pursued for a long time, if they cannot escape by their swiftness, they try to make a hole instantly in the ground, in which they often bury themselves deep enough to find security before their pursuers come up. Their burrows, in some places, are so thick as to be dangerous to travellers, the horses perpetually falling in them. It is a provident little animal, and lays up for the winter. It cuts grass in heaps of a foot square, which, when dried, it carries into its burrow, therewith to serve it for food, or to keep its young warm during the rigours of the winter.

But of all animals of this kind, that which was first discovered and described by Mr. Banks is the most extraordinary. He calls it the *kangaroo*; and though from its general outline, and the most striking peculiarities of its figure, it greatly resembles the jerboa, yet it entirely differs, if we

consider its size, or those minute distinctions which direct the makers of systems in assorting the general ranks of nature.*

The largest of the jerboa kind which are to be found in the ancient continent do not exceed the size of a rabbit. The kangaroo of New Holland, where it is only to be found, is often known to weigh above sixty pounds, and must consequently be as large as a sheep. Although the skin of that which was stuffed and brought home by Mr. Banks was not much above the size of a hare, yet it was greatly superior to any of the jerboa kind that have been hitherto known, and very different in many particulars. The snout of the jerboa, as has been said, is short and round, that of the discovered animal long and slender; the teeth also entirely differ; for as the jerboa has but two cutting-teeth in each jaw, making four in all, this animal, besides its cutting-teeth, has four canine-teeth also; but what makes a more striking peculiarity is the formation of its lower jaw, which, as the ingenious discoverer supposes, is divided into two parts, which open and shut like a pair of scissars, and cut grass, probably this animal's principal food. The head, neck, and shoulders, are very small in proportion to the other parts of the body; the tail is nearly as long as the body; thick near the rump, and tapering towards the head and ears, which bear a slight resemblance to those of the hare. We are not told, however, from the formation of its stomach, to what class of quadrupeds it belongs: from its eating grass, which it has been seen to do, one would be apt to rank it among the ruminating animals; but from the canine-teeth which it is found to have, we may on the other hand suppose it to bear some relation to the carnivorous. Upon the whole, however, it can be classed with none more properly than with animals of the jerboa kind, as its hind legs are so much longer than the fore; it moves also precisely in the same manner, taking great bounds of ten or twelve feet at a time; and thus sometimes escaping even the fleetest greyhound, with which Mr. Banks pursued it. One of them that was killed proved to be good food; but a second, which weighed

* In order to supply some deficiencies in our author's description of this animal, the reader is referred to vol. ii. p. 390, under the head of the "Opposum and its kinds," to which class naturalists now consider this creature to be nearly allied.

eighty-four pounds, and was not yet come to its full growth, was found to be much inferior.

With this last described and last discovered animal, I shall conclude the history of quadrupeds, which of all parts of natural knowledge seems to have been described the most accurately. As these, from their figure, as well as their sagacity, bear the nearest resemblance to man, and from their uses or enmities are the most respectable parts of the inferior creation; so it was his interest and his pleasure to make himself acquainted with their history. It is probable, therefore, that time, which enlarges the sphere of our knowledge in other parts of learning, can add but very little to this. The addition of a new quadruped to the catalogue already known, is of no small consequence, and happens but seldom; for the number of all is so few, that wherever a new one is found, it becomes an object worthy our best attention. It may take refuge in its native deserts from our pursuits, but not from our curiosity.

But it is very different with the inferior ranks of the creation; the classes of birds, of fishes, and of insects, are all much more numerous, and more incompletely known. The quadruped is possessed of no arts of escaping which we are not able to overcome; but the bird removes itself by its swiftness, the fishes find protection in their native element, and insects are secured in their minuteness, numbers, and variety. Of all these, therefore, we have but a very inadequate catalogue; and though the list be already very large, yet every hour is adding to its extent.

In fact, all knowledge is pleasant only as the object of it contributes to render men happy; and the services of quadrupeds being so very necessary to him in every situation, he is particularly interested in their history: without their aid, what a wretched and forlorn creature would he have been! the principal part of his food, his clothing, and his amusements are derived wholly from them; and he may be considered as a great lord, sometimes cherishing his humble dependents, and sometimes terrifying the refractory, to contribute to his delight and conveniences.

The horse and the ass, the elephant, the camel, the lama, and rein-deer, contribute to ease his fatigues, and to give him that swiftness which he wants from nature. By their assistance he changes place without labour; he attains

health without weariness ; his pride is enlarged by the elegance of equipage, and other animals are pursued with a certainty of success. It were happy indeed for man if, while converting these quadrupeds to his own benefit, he had not turned them to the destruction of his fellow-creatures ; he has employed some of them for the purposes of war, and they have conformed to his noxious ambition with but too fatal an obedience.

The cow, the sheep, the deer, and all their varieties, are necessary to him, though in a different manner. Their flesh makes the principal luxuries of his table, and their wool or skins the chief ornament of his person. Even those nations that are forbid to touch any thing that has life cannot wholly dispense with their assistance. The milk of these animals makes a principal part of the food of every country, and often repairs those constitutions that have been broken by disease or intemperance.

The dog, the cat, and the ferret, may be considered as having deserted from their fellow-quadrupeds to list themselves under the conduct and protection of man. At his command they exert all their services against such animals as they are capable of destroying, and follow them into places where he himself wants abilities to pursue.

As there is thus a numerous tribe, that he has taken into protection, and that supplies his necessities and amusements, so there is also a still more numerous one, that wages an equal combat against him, and thus calls forth his courage and his industry. Were it not for the lion, the tiger, the panther, the rhinoceros, and the bear, he would scarcely know his own powers, and the superiority of human art over brutal fierceness. These serve to excite, and put his nobler passions into motion. He attacks them in their retreat, faces them with resolution, and seldom fails of coming off with a victory. He thus becomes hardier and better in the struggle, and learns to know and to value his own superiority.

As the last mentioned animals are called forth by his boldest efforts, so the numerous tribe of the smaller vermin kind excite his continual vigilance and caution ; his various arts and powers have been no where more manifest than in the extirpation of those that multiply with such prodigious fecundity. Neither their agility nor their minuteness can

secure them from his pursuits ; and though they may infest, they are seldom found materially to injure him.

In this manner we see, that not only human want is supplied, but that human wit is sharpened, by the humbler partners of man in the creation. By this we see, that not only their benefits, but their depredations, are useful, and that it has wisely pleased Providence to place us like victors in a subdued country, where we have all the benefit of conquest, without being so secure as to run into the sloth and excesses of a certain and undisturbed possession. It appears, therefore, that those writers who are continually finding immediate benefit in every production see but half way into the general system of nature. Experience must every hour inform us, that all animals are not formed for our use ; but we may be equally well assured, that those conveniences which we want from their friendship are well repaid by that vigilance which we procure from their enmity.

PART III.

OF BIRDS.

BOOK III.

OF BIRDS IN GENERAL.

CHAP. I.

INTRODUCTION.

WE are now come to a beautiful and loquacious race of animals, that embellish our forests, amuse our walks, and exclude solitude from our most shady retirements. From these man has nothing to fear; their pleasures, their desires, and even their animosities, only serve to enliven the general picture of nature, and give harmony to meditation.

No part of nature appears destitute of inhabitants. The woods, the waters, the depths of the earth, have their respective tenants; while the yielding air, and those tracts of seeming space where man never can ascend, are also passed through by multitudes of the most beautiful beings of the creation.

Every order and rank of animals seems fitted for its situation in life; but none more apparently than birds: they share, in common with the stronger race of quadrupeds, the vegetable spoils of the earth; are supplied with swiftness, to compensate for their want of force; and have a faculty of ascending into the air, to avoid that power which they cannot oppose.

The bird seems formed entirely for a life of escape; and every part of the anatomy of the animal seems calculated for swiftness. As it is designed to rise upon air, all its parts are proportionably light, and expand a large surface without solidity.

In a comparative view with man, their formation seems much ruder and more imperfect; and they are in general found incapable of the docility even of quadrupeds. Indeed, what degree of sagacity can be expected in animals whose eyes are almost as large as their brain? However, though they fall below quadrupeds in the scale of nature, and are less imitative of human endowments, yet they hold the next rank, and far surpass fishes and insects, both in the structure of their bodies and in their sagacity.

As in mechanics the most curious instruments are generally the most complicated, so it is in anatomy. The body of man presents the greatest variety upon dissection; quadrupeds, less perfectly formed, discover their defects in the simplicity of their conformation; the mechanism of birds is still less complex; fishes are furnished with fewer organs still; whilst insects, more imperfect than all, seem to fill up the chasm that separates animal from vegetable nature. Of men, the most perfect animal, there are but three or four species; of quadrupeds, the kinds are more numerous; birds are more various still; fishes yet more; but insects afford so very great a variety, that they elude the search of the most inquisitive pursuer.

Quadrupeds, as was said, have some distant resemblance in their internal structure with man; but that of birds is entirely dissimilar. As they seem chiefly formed to inhabit the empty regions of air, all their parts are adapted to their destined situation. It will be proper, therefore, before I give a general history of birds, to enter into a slight detail of their anatomy and conformation.

As to their external parts, they seem surprisingly adapted for swiftness of motion. The shape of their body is sharp before, to pierce and make way through the air; it then rises by a gentle swelling to its bulk, and falls off in an expansive tail, that helps to keep it buoyant, while the fore parts are cleaving the air by their sharpness. From this conformation, they have often been compared to a ship making its way through water; the trunk of the

body answers to the hold, the head to the prow, the tail to the rudder, and the wings to the oars ; from whence the poets have adopted the metaphor of *remigium alarum*, when they describe the wavy motion of a bird in flight.

What we are called upon next to admire in the external formation of birds is, the neat position of the feathers, lying all one way, answering at once the purposes of warmth, speed, and security. They mostly tend backward, and are laid over one another in an exact and regular order, armed with warm and soft down next the body, and more strongly fortified, and curiously closed externally, to fence off the injuries of the weather. But, lest the feathers should spoil by their violent attrition, against the air, or imbibe the moisture of the atmosphere, the animal is furnished with a gland behind, containing a proper quantity of oil, which can be pressed out by the bird's bill, and laid smoothly over every feather that wants to be dressed for the occasion. This gland is situated on the rump, and furnished with an opening or excretory duct ; about which grows a small tuft of feathers somewhat like a painter's pencil. When, therefore, the feathers are shattered or rumpled, the bird, turning its head backwards, with the bill catches hold of the gland, and, pressing it, forces out the oily substance, with which it anoints the disjointed parts of the feathers ; and, drawing them out with great assiduity, recomposes and places them in due order ; by which they unite more closely together. Such poultry, however, as live for the most part under cover, are not furnished with so large a stock of this fluid, as those birds that reside in the open air. The feathers of a hen, for instance, are pervious to every shower ; on the contrary, swans, geese, ducks, and all such as nature has directed to live upon the water, have their feathers dressed with oil from the very first day of their leaving the shell. Thus their stock of fluid is equal to the necessity of its consumption. Their very flesh contracts a flavour from it, which renders it in some so very rancid, as to make it utterly unfit for food ; however, though it injures the flesh, it improves the feathers for all the domestic purposes to which they are usually converted.

Nor are the feathers with which birds are covered less an object of admiration. The shaft of every feather is

made proportionably strong; but hollow below for strength and lightness, and above filled with a pith to feed the growth of the vane or beard that springs from the shaft of the feather on either side. All these feathers are placed generally according to their length and strength, so that the largest and strongest feathers in flight have the greatest share of duty. The vane or beard of the feather is formed with equal contrivance and care. It consists not of one continued membrane; because, if this were broken, it could not easily be repaired; but it is composed of many layers, each somewhat in itself resembling a feather, and lying against each other in close conjunction. Towards the shaft of the feather, these layers are broad, and of a semicircular form, to serve for strength, and for the closer grafting them one against the other when in action. Towards the outer part of the vane, these layers grow slender and taper, to be more light. On their under-side they are thin and smooth, but their upper outer-edge is parted into two hairy edges, each side having a different sort of hairs, broad at bottom, and slender and bearded above. By this mechanism, the hooked beards of one layer always lie next the straight beards of the next, and by that means lock and hold each other.

The next object that comes under consideration, in contemplating an animal that flies, is the wing, the instrument by which this wonderful progression is performed. In such birds that fly, they are usually placed at that part of the body which serves to poise the whole, and support it in a fluid that at first seems so much lighter than itself. They answer to the fore legs in quadrupeds; and at the extremity of this they have a certain finger-like appendix, which is usually called the *bastard-wing*. This instrument of flight is furnished with quills, which differ from the common feathers only in their size being larger, and also from their springing from the deeper part of the skin, their shafts lying almost close to the bone. The beards of these quills are broad on one side and more narrow on the other, both which contribute to the progressive motion of the bird, and the closeness of the wing. The manner in which most birds avail themselves of these, is first thus: they quit the earth with a bound, in order to have room for flapping with the wing; when they have room for this, they strike the body of

air beneath the wing with a violent motion, and with the whole under surface of the same ; but then to avoid striking the air with equal violence on the upper side as they rise, the wing is instantly contracted ; so that the animal rises by the impulse, till it spreads the wing for a second blow. For this reason, we always see birds choose to rise against the wind, because they have thus a greater body of air on the under than the upper side of the wing. For these reasons also large fowls do not rise easily ; both because they have not sufficient room at first for the motion of their wings, and because the body of air does not lie so directly under the wing as they rise.

In order to move the wings, all birds are furnished with two very strong pectoral muscles, which lie on each side of the breast-bone. The pectoral muscles of quadrupeds, are trifling in comparison to those of birds. In quadrupeds, as well as in man, the muscles which move the thighs and hinder parts of the body are by far the strongest, while those of the arms are feeble : but in birds, which make use of their wings, the contrary obtains ; the pectoral muscles, that move the wings or arms, are of enormous strength, while those of the thighs are weak and slender. By means of these, a bird can move its wings with a degree of strength which, when compared to the animal's size, is almost incredible. The flap of a swan's wing would break a man's leg ; and a similar blow from an eagle has been known to lay a man dead in an instant. Such, consequently, is the force of the wing, and such its lightness, as to be inimitable by art. No machines, that human skill can contrive, are capable of giving such force to so light an apparatus. The art of flying, therefore, that has so often and so fruitlessly been sought after, must, it is feared, for ever be unattainable ; since as man increases the force of his flying machine, he must be obliged to increase its weight also.

In all birds, except nocturnal ones, the head is smaller, and bears less proportion to the body than in quadrupeds, that it may more readily divide the air in flying, and make way for the body, so as to render its passage more easy. Their eyes also are more flat and depressed than in quadrupeds ; a circle of small plates of bone, placed scalewise, under the outer coat of the organ, encompasses the pupil

on each, to strengthen and defend it from injuries. Beside this, birds have a kind of skin, called the nictitating membrane, with which, like a veil, they can at pleasure cover their eyes, though their eye-lids continue open. This membrane takes its rise from the greater or more obtuse corner of the eye, and serves to wipe, cleanse, and probably to moisten its surface. The eyes, though they outwardly appear but small, yet, separately, each almost equals the brain; whereas in man the brain is more than twenty times larger than the orbit of the eye. Nor is this organ in birds less adapted for vision by a particular expansion of the optic nerve, which renders the impressions of external objects more vivid and distinct.

From this conformation of the eye it follows, that the sense of seeing in birds is infinitely superior to that of other animals. Indeed this piercing sight seems necessary to the creature's support and safety. Were this organ blunter, from the rapidity of the bird's motion, it would be apt to strike against every object in its way; and it could scarcely find subsistence, unless possessed of a power to discern its food from above with astonishing sagacity. An hawk, for instance, perceives a lark at a distance, which neither men nor dogs could spy; a kite, from an almost imperceptible height in the clouds, darts down on its prey with the most unerring aim. The sight of birds, therefore, exceeds what we know in most other animals, and excels them both in strength and precision.

All birds want the external ear standing out from the head; they are only furnished with holes that convey sounds to the auditory canal. It is true, indeed, that the horned owl, and one or two more birds, seem to have external ears; but what bears that resemblance are only feathers sticking out on each side of the head, but no way necessary to the sense of hearing. It is probable, however, that the feathers encompassing the ear-holes in birds, supply the defect of the exterior ear, and collect sounds to be transmitted to the internal sensory. The extreme delicacy of this organ is easily proved by the readiness with which birds learn tunes, or repeat words, and the great exactness of their pronunciation.

The sense of smelling seems not less vivid in the generality of birds. Many of them *wind* their prey at an in-

mense distance, while others are equally protected by this sense against their insidious pursuers. In decoys, where ducks are caught, the men who attend them universally keep a piece of turf burning near their mouths, upon which they breathe, lest the fowl should smell them, and consequently fly away. The universality of this practice puts the necessity of it beyond a doubt, and proves the extreme delicacy of the sense of smelling, at least in this species of the feathered creation.

Next to the parts for flight, let us view the legs and feet ministering to motion. They are both made light, for the easier transportation through the air. The toes in some are webbed, to fit them for the waters; in others they are separate, for the better holding objects, or clinging to trees for safety. Such as have long legs have also long necks, as otherwise they would be incapable of gathering up their food either by land or water. But it does not hold, however, that those who have long necks should have long legs, since we see that swans and geese, whose necks are extremely long, have very short legs, and these chiefly employed in swimming.

Thus every external part, hitherto noticed, appears adapted to the life and situation of the animal; nor are the inward parts, though less immediately appropriated to flight, less necessary to safety. The bones of every part of the body are extremely light and thin; and all the muscles, except that immediately moving the wings, extremely slight and feeble. The tail, which is composed of quill feathers, serves to counterbalance the head and neck; it guides the animal's flight, like a rudder; and greatly assists it either in its ascent or when descending.

If we go on to examine birds internally, we shall find the same wonderful conformation fitting them for a life in air, and increasing the surface by diminishing the solidty. In the first place their lungs, which are commonly called the *sole*, stick fast to the sides of the ribs and back, and can be very little dilated or contracted. But to make up for this, which might impede their breathing, the ends of the branches of the wind-pipe open into them, while these have openings into the cavity of the belly, and convey the air drawn in by breathing into certain receptacles like bladders, running along the length of the whole body. Nor

are these openings obscure, or difficult to be discerned; for a probe thrust into the lungs of a fowl will easily find a passage into the belly; and air blown into the wind-pipe will be seen to distend the animal's body like a bladder. In quadrupeds this passage is stopped by the midriff; but in fowls the communication is obvious; and, consequently, they have a much greater facility of taking a long and large inspiration. It is sometimes also seen that the windpipe makes many convolutions within the body of a bird, and it is then called the *labyrinth*; but of what use these convolutions are, or why the wind-pipe should make so many turnings within the body of some birds, is a difficulty for which no naturalist has been able to account.

This difference of the wind-pipe often obtains in animals that, to all appearance, are of the same species. Thus in the tame swan, the wind-pipe makes but a straight passage into the lungs; while in the wild swan, which to all external appearance seems the same animal, the wind-pipe pierces through the breast-bone, and there has several turnings before it comes out again, and goes to enter the lungs. It is not to form the voice that these turnings are found, since the fowls that are without them are vocal; and those, particularly the bird just now mentioned, that have them, are silent. Whence, therefore, some birds derive that loud and various modulation in their warblings, is not easily to be accounted for; at least the knife of the anatomist goes but a short way in the investigation. All we are certain of is, that birds have much louder voices, in respect to their bulk, than animals of any other kind; for the bellowing of an ox is not louder than the scream of a peacock.

In these particulars, birds pretty much resemble each other in their internal conformation; but there are some varieties which we should more attentively observe. All birds have, properly speaking, but one stomach; but this is very different in different kinds. In all the rapacious kinds that live upon animal food, as well as in some of the fish-feeding tribe, the stomach is peculiarly formed. The oesophagus, or gullet, in them, is found replete with glandulous bodies, which serve to dilate and macerate the food, as it passes into the stomach, which is always very large in proportion to the size of the bird, and generally wrapped

round with fat, in order to increase its warmth and powers of digestion.

Granivorous birds, or such as live upon fruits, corn, and other vegetables, have their intestines differently formed from those of the rapacious kind. Their gullet dilates just above the breast bone, and forms itself into a pouch or bag, called the crop. This is replete with salivary glands, which serve to moisten and soften the grain and other food which it contains. These glands are very numerous, with longitudinal openings, which emit a whitish and a viscous substance. After the dry food of the bird has been macerated for a convenient time, it then passes into the belly, where, instead of a soft moist stomach, as in the rapacious kinds, it is ground between two pair of muscles, commonly called the gizzard, covered on the inside with a stony ridgy coat, and almost cartilaginous. These coats rubbing against each other, are capable of bruising and attenuating the hardest substances, their action being often compared to that of the grinding teeth in man and other animals. Thus the organs of digestion are in a manner reversed in birds. Beasts grind their food with their teeth, and then it passes into the stomach, where it is softened and digested. On the contrary, birds of this sort first macerate and soften it in the crop, and then it is ground and comminuted in the stomach or gizzard. Birds are also careful to pick up sand, gravel, and other hard substances, not to grind their food as has been supposed, but to prevent the too violent action of the coats of the stomach against each other.

Most birds have two appendices, or blind-guts, which, in quadrupeds, are always found single. Among such birds as are thus supplied, all carnivorous fowl, and all birds of the sparrow kind, have very small and short ones; water-fowl and birds of the poultry kind, the longest of all. There is still another appendix observable in the intestines of birds, resembling a little worm, which is nothing more than the remainder of that passage by which the yolk was conveyed into the guts of the young chicken, while yet in the egg and under incubation.

The outlet of that duct which conveys the bile into the intestines is, in most birds, a great way distant from the stomach; which may arise from the danger there would

be of the bile regurgitating into the stomach in their various rapid motions, as we see in men at sea; wherefore their biliary duct is so contrived, that this regurgitation cannot take place.

All birds, though they want a bladder for urine, have large kidneys and ureters, by which this secretion is made, and carried away by one common canal. "Birds," says Horvey, "as well as serpents, which have spongy lungs, make but little water, because they drink but little. They therefore have no need of a bladder; but their urine distils down into the common canal, designed for receiving the other excrements of the body. The urine of birds differs from that of other animals: for, as there is usually in urine two parts, one more serous and liquid, the other more thick and gross, which subsides to the bottom; in birds, the last part is most abundant, and is distinguished from the rest by its white or silver colour. This part is found not only in the whole intestinal canal, but is seen also in the whole channel of the ureters, which may be distinguished from the coats of the kidneys by their whiteness. This milky substance they have in greater plenty than the more thin and serous part; and it is of a middle consistence, between limpid urine and the grosser parts of the *fæces*. In passing through the ureters, it resembles milk curdled or lightly condensed; and, being cast forth, easily congeals into a chalky crust."

From this simple conformation of the animal, it should seem that birds are subject to few diseases; and, in fact, they have but few. There is one, however, which they are subject to, from which quadrupeds are, in a great measure, exempt; this is the annual moulting which they suffer; for all birds whatsoever obtain a new covering of feathers once a year, and cast the old. During the moulting season, they ever appear disordered; those most remarkable for their courage, then lose all their fierceness; and such as are of a weakly constitution, often expire under this natural operation. No feeding can maintain their strength; they all cease to breed at this season; that nourishment which goes to the production of the young is wholly absorbed by the demand required for supplying the nascent plumage.

This moulting-time, however, may be artificially accele-

rated; and those who have the management of singing-birds frequently put their secret in practice. They enclose the bird in a dark cage, where they keep it excessively warm, and throw the poor little animal into an artificial fever; this produces the moult; his old feathers fall before their time, and a new set take place, more brilliant and beautiful than the former. They add, that it mends the bird's singing, and increases its vivacity; but it must not be concealed, that scarcely one bird in three survives the operation.

The manner in which nature performs this operation of moulting is thus: the quill, or feather, when first protruded from the skin, and come to its full size, grows harder as it grows older, and receives a kind of periosteum or skin round the shaft, by which it seems attached to the animal. In proportion as the quill grows older, its sides, or the bony pen-part, thicken; but its whole diameter shrinks and decreases. Thus, by the thickening of its sides, all nourishment from the body becomes more sparing; and, by the decrease of its diameter, it becomes more loosely fixed in its socket, till at length it falls out. In the mean time, the rudiments of an incipient quill are beginning below. The skin forms itself into a little bag, which is fed from the body by a small vein and artery, and which every day increases in size till it is protruded. While the one end vegetates into the beard or vane of the feather, that part attached to the skin is still soft, and receives a constant supply of nourishment, which is diffused through the body of the quill by that little light substance which we always find within when we make a pen. This substance, which as yet has received no name that I know of, serves the growing quill as the umbilical artery does an infant in the womb, by supplying it with nourishment, and diffusing that nourishment over the whole frame. When, however, the quill is come to its full growth, and requires no further nourishment, the vein and artery become less and less, till at last the little opening by which they communicated with the quill becomes wholly obliterated; and the quill, thus deprived, continues in its socket for some months, till in the end it shrinks, and leaves room for a repetition of the same process of nature as before.

The moulting season commonly obtains from the end of summer to the middle of autumn. The bird continues to struggle with this malady during the winter; and nature has kindly provided, that when there are the fewest provisions, that then the animal's appetite shall be least craving. At the beginning of spring, when food begins again to be plentiful, the animal's strength and vigour return. It is then that the abundance of provisions, aided by the mildness of the season, incite it to live, and all nature seems teeming with life, and disposed to continue it.

CHAP. II.

OF THE GENERATION, NESTING, AND INCUBATION, OF BIRDS.

THE return of spring is the beginning of pleasure. Those vital spirits, which seemed locked up during the winter, then begin to expand; vegetables and insects supply abundance of food; and the bird, having more than a sufficiency for its own subsistence, is impelled to transfuse life, as well as to maintain it. Those warblings, which had been hushed during the colder seasons, now begin to animate the fields; every grove and bush resounds with the challenge of anger, or the call of allurement. This delightful concert of the grove, which is so much admired by man, is no way studied for his amusement; it is usually the call of the male to the female, his efforts to soothe her during the times of incubation; or it is a challenge between two males, for the affections of some common favourite.

It is by this call that birds begin to pair at the approach of spring, and provide for the support of a future progeny. The loudest notes are usually from the male, while the hen seldom expresses her consent, but in a short interrupted twittering. This compact, at least for the season, holds with unbroken faith; many birds live with inviolable fidelity together for a constancy; and when one dies, the other is always seen to share the same fate soon after. We must not take our idea of the conjugal fidelity of birds from ob-

serving the poultry in our yards, whose freedom is abridged, and whose manners are totally corrupted by slavery. We must look for it in our fields and our forests, where nature continues in unadulterated simplicity; where the number of males is generally equal to that of females; and where every little animal seems prouder of his progeny, than pleased with his mate. Were it possible to compare sensations, the male of all wild birds seems as happy in the young brood as the female; and all his former caresses, all his soothing melodies, seem only aimed at that important occasion, when they are both to become parents, and to educate a progeny of their own producing. The pleasures of love appear dull in their effects, when compared to the interval immediately after the exclusion of their young. They both seem at that season transported with pleasure; every action testifies their pride, their importance, and tender solicitude.

When the business of fecundation is performed, the female then begins to lay. Such eggs as have been impregnated by the cock are prolific; and such as have not, for she lays often without any congress whatsoever, continue barren, and are only addled by incubation. Previous, however, to laying, the work of nestling becomes the common care; and this is performed with no small degree of assiduity and apparent design. It has been asserted, that birds of one kind always make their nests in the same manner, and of the same materials; but the truth is, that they vary this as the materials, places, or climates, happen to differ. The red breast, in some parts of England, makes its nest with oak leaves, where they are in greatest plenty; in other parts, with moss and hair. Some birds, that with us make a very warm nest, are less solicitous in the tropical climates, where the heat of the weather promotes the business of incubation. In general, however, every species of birds has a peculiar architecture of its own; and this adapted to the number of eggs, the temperature of the climate, or the respective heat of the little animal's own body. Where the eggs are numerous, it is then incumbent to make the nest warm, that the animal heat may be equally diffused to them all. Thus the wren, and all the small birds, make the nest very warm; for having many eggs, it is requisite to distribute warmth to them in common: on

the contrary, the plover, that has but two eggs, the eagle, and the crow, are not so solicitous in this respect, as their hodies are capable of being applied to the small number upon which they sit. With regard to climate, water-fowl, that with us make but a very slovenly nest, are much more exact in this particular in the colder regions of the north. They there take every precaution to make it warm; and some kinds strip the down from their breasts, to line it with greater security.

In general, however, every bird resorts to hatch in those climates and places where its food is found in greatest plenty; and always at that season when provisions are in the greatest abundance. The large birds, and those of the aquatic kinds, choose places as remote from man as possible, as their food is in general different from that which is cultivated by human labour. Some birds, which have only the serpent to fear, build their nests depending from the end of a small bough, and form the entrance from below; being thus secured either from the serpent or the mankey tribes. But all the little birds which live upon fruits and corn, and that are too often unwelcome intruders upon the fruits of human industry, in making their nests, use every precaution to conceal them from man. On the other hand, the great birds remote from human society, use every precaution to render theirs inaccessible to wild beasts or vermin.

Nothing can exceed the patience of birds while hatching; neither the calls of hunger, nor the near approach of danger, can drive them from the nest. They are often fat upon beginning to sit, yet before incubation is over the female is usually wasted to skin and bone. Ravens and crows, while the females are sitting, take care to provide them with food; and this in great abundance. But it is different with most of the smaller kinds: during the whole time, the male sits near his mate upon some tree, and soothes her by his singing; and often when she is tired takes her place, and patiently continues upon the nest till she returns. Sometimes, however, the eggs acquire a degree of heat too much for the purposes of hatching; in such cases, the hen leaves them to cool a little, and then returns to sit with her usual perseverance and pleasure.

So great is the power of instinct, in animals of this class,

that they seem driven from one appetite to another, and continue almost passive under its influence. Reason we cannot call it, since the first dictates of that principle would be self-preservation:—"Take a brute," says Addison, "out of his instinct, and you find him wholly deprived of understanding. With what caution," continues he, "does the hen provide herself a nest in places unfrequented, and free from noise and disturbance! When she has laid her eggs in such a manner that she can cover them, what care does she take in turning them frequently, that all parts may partake of the vital warmth! When she leaves them, to provide for her necessary sustenance, how punctually does she return before they have time to cool, and become incapable of producing an animal! In the summer you see her giving herself greater freedoms, and quitting her care for above two hours together; but in winter, when the rigour of the season would chill the principles of life, and destroy the young one, she grows more assiduous in her attendance, and stays away but half the time. When the birth approaches, with how much nicety and attention does she help the chick to break the prison! not to take notice of her covering it from the injuries of the weather, providing it with proper nourishment, and teaching it to help itself; nor to mention her forsaking the nest, if, after the usual time of reckoning, the young one does not make its appearance. A chymical operation could not be followed with greater art or diligence than is seen in the hatching a chick, though there are many birds that shew an infinitely greater sagacity: yet at the same time the hen, that has all this seeming ingenuity, (which is indeed absolutely necessary for the propagation of the species,) considered in other respects, is without the least glimmerings of thought or common sense: she mistakes a piece of chalk for an egg, and sits upon it in the same manner; she is insensible of any increase or diminution in the number of those she lays; she does not distinguish between her own, and those of another species; and when the birth appears of never so different a bird, will cherish it for her own. A hen, followed by a brood of ducks, shall stand affrighted at the edge of the pond, trembling for the fate of her young, which she sees venturing into so dangerous an element. As the dif-

ferent principle which acts in these different animals cannot be termed reason, so when we call it instinct, we mean something we have no knowledge of. It appears to me the immediate direction of Providence; and such an operation of the Supreme Being, as that which determines all the portions of matter to their proper centres."

The production of the young, as was said, seems to be the great object of a bird's happiness. Nothing can at that time exceed its spirit and industry: the most timid becomes courageous in the defence of its young. Birds of the rapacious kind, at this season, become more than usually fierce and active. They carry their prey, yet throbbing with life, to the nest, and early accustom their young to habits of slaughter and cruelty. Nor are those of milder natures less busily employed; the little birds then discontinue their singing, taken up with more important pursuits of common subsistence.

While the young are yet unsledged, and continue in the nest, the old ones take care to provide them with a regular supply; and, lest one should take all nourishment from the rest, they feed each of the young in their turn. If they perceive that man has been busy with their nest, or has handled the little ones, they abandon the place by night, and provide their brood a more secure, though less commodious, retreat. When the whole family is completely plumed, and capable of avoiding danger by flight, they are then led forth when the weather is fine, and taught the paternal art of providing for their subsistence. They are led to the places where their food lies; they are shewn the method of discovering or carrying it away; and then led back to the nest, for a day or two longer. At length, when they are completely qualified to shift for themselves, the old ones take them abroad, and leading them to the accustomed places, forsake them for the last time; and all future connection is ever at an end.

Those birds which are hatched and sent out earliest in the season, are the most strong and vigorous; those, on the other hand, that have been delayed till the midst of summer, are more feeble and tender, and sometimes incapable of sustaining the rigours of the ensuing winter. Birds themselves seem sensible of this difference, and endeavour to produce early in the spring. If, however,

their efforts are obstructed by having their nests robbed, or some similar accident, they still persevere in their efforts for a progeny; and it often happens that some are thus retarded till the midst of winter. What number of eggs any bird can lay in the course of a season is not ascertained; but this is true, that such as would have laid but two or three at the most, if their nests be robbed, or their eggs stolen, will lay above ten or twelve. A common hen, if moderately fed, will lay above a hundred from the beginning of spring to the latter end of autumn. In general, however, it obtains, that the smallest and weakest animals are the most prolific, while the strong and rapacious are abridged by sterility. Thus, such kinds as are easily destroyed, are as readily repaired; and nature, where she has denied the power of resistance, has compensated by the fertility attending procreation.

Birds in general, though they have so much to fear from man and each other, are seldom scared away from their usual haunts. Although they be so perfectly formed for a wandering life, and are supplied with powers to satisfy all their appetites, though never so remote from the object, though they are so well fitted for changing place with ease and rapidity, yet the greatest number remain contented in the districts where they have been bred, and by no means exert their desires in proportion to their endowments. The rook, if undisturbed, never desires to leave his native grove; the black-bird still frequents its accustomed hedge; and the red-breast, though seemingly mild, claims a certain district, from which he seldom moves, but drives out every one of the same species from thence without pity. They are excited to migration by no other motives but those of fear, climate, or hunger. It must be from one of these powerful motives that the birds, which are called birds of passage, every year forsake us for some time, and make their regular and expected returns.

Nothing has more employed the curiosity of mankind than these annual emigrations; and yet few subjects continue so much involved in darkness. It is generally believed, that the cause of their retreat from these parts of Europe, is either a scarcity of food at certain seasons, or the want of a secure asylum from the persecution of man, during the time of courtship and bringing up their young.

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Thus the starling, in Sweden, at the approach of winter, finding subsistence no longer in that kingdom, descends every year into Germany; and the hen chaffinches of the same country are seen every year to fly through Holland in large flocks, to pass their winter in a milder climate. Others, with a more daring spirit, prepare for journeies that might intimidate even human perseverance. Thus the quails, in spring, forsake the burning heats of Africa for the milder sun of Europe; and, when they have past the summer with us, steer their flight back to enjoy in Egypt the temperate air, which then begins to be delightful. This, with them, seems a preconcerted undertaking. They unite together in some open place, for some days before their departure, and, by an odd kind of chattering, seem to debate on the method to proceed. When their plan is resolved upon, they all take flight together, and often appear in such numbers, that to mariners at sea they seem like a cloud that rests upon the horizon. The boldest, strongest, and by far the greatest number, make good their intention; but many there are, who, not well apprised of their own force for the undertaking, grow weary on the way, and, quite spent by the fatigues of their flight, drop down into the sea, and sometimes upon deck, thus becoming an easy prey to the mariner.

Of the vast quantity of water-fowl, that frequent our shores, it is amazing to reflect how few are known to breed here. The cause that principally urges them to leave this country, seems to be not merely the want of food, but the desire of a secure retreat. Our country is too populous for birds so shy and timid as the greatest number of these are. When great part of our island was a mere waste, an uncultivated tract of woods and marshes, many species of birds which now migrate remained with us throughout the year. The great heron and the crane, that have now forsaken this country, in former times bred familiarly in our marshes, and seemed to animate our fens. Their nests, like those of most cloven footed water-fowl, were built on the ground, and exposed to every invader. But as rural economy increased, these animals were more and more disturbed. Before they had little to fear, as the surrounding marsh defended them from all the carnivorous quadrupeds, and their own strength from

birds of prey; but upon the intrusion of man, and by a long series of alarms, they have at length been obliged to seek, during the summer, some lonely habitation, at a safe distance from every destroyer.

Of the numerous tribes of the duck kind, we know of no more than five that breed here; the tame swan, the tame goose, the sheldrake, the eider duck, and a few of the wild ducks. The rest contribute to form that amazing multitude of water-fowl which annually repair to the dreary lakes and deserts of Lapland from the more southern countries of Europe. In those extensive and solitary retreats, they perform the duties of incubation and nutrition in full security. There are few of this kind that may not be traced to the northern deserts, to countries of lakes, rivers, swamps, and mountains, covered with thick and gloomy forests, that afford shelter during summer to the timid animals, who live there in undisturbed security. In those regions, from the thickness of the forests; the ground remains moist and penetrable during the summer season; the woodcock, the snipe, and other slender-billed birds, can there feed at ease; while the web-footed birds find more than sufficient plenty of food from the number of insects, which swarm there to an incredible degree. The days there are long; and and the beautiful meteorous nights afford them every opportunity of collecting so minute a food, which is probably, of all others, the most grateful. We are not to be astonished, therefore, at the amazing numbers of fowl that descend from these regions at the approach of winter; numbers to which the army of Xerxes was but trifling in comparison; and which Linnæus has observed for eight whole days and nights to cover the surface of the river Calix.

This migration from the north usually begins in September, when they quit their retreats, and disperse themselves over all the southern parts of Europe. It is not unpleasing to observe the order of their flight; they generally range themselves in a long line, or they sometimes make their mark angularly, two lines uniting in the centre like the letter V reversed. The bird which leads at the point seems to cleave the air, to facilitate the passage for those which are to follow. When fatigued with this laborious station, it falls back into one of the wings of the file, while another

takes its place. With us they make their appearance about the beginning of October, circulate first round our shores, and, when compelled by severe frost, betake themselves to our lakes and rivers. Some, indeed, of the web-footed fowl, of hardier constitutions than the rest, abide the rigours of their northern climate the whole winter; but when the cold reigns there with more than usual severity, they are obliged to seek for more southern skies. They then repair with the rest for shelter to these kingdoms; so that the diver, the wild swan, and the swallow-tailed sheldrake, visit our coasts but seldom, and that only when compelled by the severity of their winters at home.

It has been often a subject of astonishment, how animals to all appearance so dull and irrational should perform such long journies, should know whither to steer, and when to set out upon such a great undertaking. It is probable that the same instinct which governs all their other actions operates also here. They rather follow the weather than the country; they steer only from colder or warmer climates into those of an opposite nature; and finding the variations of the air as they proceed in their favour, go on till they find land to repose on. It cannot be supposed that they have any memory of the country where they might have spent a former winter; it cannot be supposed that they see the country to which they travel, from their height in the air; since, though they mounted for miles, the convexity of the globe would intercept their view: it must therefore only be, that they go on as they continue to perceive the atmosphere more suitable to their present wants and dispositions.

All this seems to be pretty plain: but there is a circumstance attending the migration of swallows which wraps this subject in great obscurity. It is agreed on all hands, that they are seen migrating into warmer climates, and that in amazing numbers, at the approach of the European winter. Their return into Europe is also as well attested about the beginning of summer; but we have another account, which serves to prove that numbers of them continue torpid here during the winter, and, like bats, make their retreat into old walls, the hollow of trees, or even sink into the deepest lakes, and find security for the winter season by remaining

there in clusters at the bottom. However this latter circumstance may be, their retreat into old walls is two well authenticated to remain a doubt at present. The difficulty, therefore, is to account for this difference in these animals thus variously preparing to encounter the winter. It was supposed that in some of them the blood might lose its motion by the cold, and that thus they were rendered torpid by the severity of the season; but Mr. Buffon having placed many of this tribe in an ice-house, found that the same cold by which their blood was congealed was fatal to the animal; it remains, therefore, a doubt to this hour, whether there may not be a species of swallows to all external appearance like the rest, but differently formed within, so as to fit them for a state of insensibility during the winter here. It was suggested, indeed, that the swallows found thus torpid, were such only as were too weak to undertake the migration, or were hatched too late to join the general convoy; but it was upon these that Mr. Buffon tried his experiment; it was these that died under the operation.

Thus there are some birds which, by migrating, make an habitation of every part of the earth; but in general every climate has birds peculiar to itself. The feathered inhabitants of the temperate zone are but little remarkable for the beauty of their plumage; but then the smaller kinds make up for this defect by the melody of their voices. The birds of the torrid zone are very bright and vivid in their colours; but they have screaming voices, or are totally silent. The frigid zone, on the other hand, where the seas abound with fish, are stocked with birds of the aquatic kind, in much greater plenty than in Europe; and these are generally clothed with a warmer coat of feathers; or they have large quantities of fat lying underneath the skin, which serves to defend them from the rigours of the climate.

In all countries, however, birds are a more long-lived class of animals than the quadrupeds or insects of the same climate. The life of man himself is but short, when compared to what some of them enjoy. It is said that swans have been known to live three hundred years; geese are often seen to live fourscore; while linnets and other little birds, though imprisoned in cages, are often found to reach

fourteen or fifteen. How birds, whose age of perfection is much more early than that of quadrupeds, should yet live comparatively so much longer, is not easily to be accounted for: perhaps, as their bones are lighter, and more porous, than those of quadrupeds, there are fewer obstructions in the animal machine; and nature, thus finding more room for the operations of life, is carried on to a greater extent.

All birds in general are less than quadrupeds; that is, the greatest of one class far surpass the greatest of the other in magnitude. The ostrich, which is the greatest of birds; bears no proportion to the elephant; and the smallest humming-bird, which is the least of the class, is still far more minute than the mouse. In these the extremities of nature are plainly discernible; and in forming them she appears to have been doubtful in her operations: the ostrich seemingly covered with hair, and incapable of flight, making near approaches to the quadruped class; while the humming-bird, of the size of an humble-bee, and with a fluttering motion, seems nearly allied to the insect.

These extremities of this class are rather objects of human curiosity than utility: it is the middle order of birds which man has taken care to propagate and maintain. Of those which he has taken under his protection, and which administer to his pleasures or necessities, the greatest number seem creatures of his formation. The variety of climate to which he consigns them, the food with which he supplies them, and the purposes for which he employs them, produce amazing varieties, both in their colours, shape, magnitude, and the taste of their flesh. Wild birds are, for the most part, of the same magnitude and shape; they still keep the prints of primæval nature strong upon them, except in a few; they generally maintain their very colour: but it is otherwise with domestic animals; they change at the will of man—of the tame pigeon, for instance, it is said they can be bred to a feather.

As we are thus capable of influencing their form and colour, so also is it frequent to see equal instances of our influencing their habitudes, appetites, and passions. The cock, for instance, is artificially formed into that courage and activity which he is seen to possess; and many birds

testify a strong attachment to the hand that feeds them. How far they are capable of instruction, is manifest to those who have the care of hawks. But a still more surprising instance of this was seen some time ago in London: a canary bird was taught to pick up the letters of the alphabet, at the word of command, so as to spell any person's name in company; and this the little animal did by motions from its master, which were imperceptible to every other spectator. Upon the whole, however, they are inferior to quadrupeds in docility; and seem more mechanically impelled by all the power of instinct.

CHAP. III.

OF THE DIVISION OF BIRDS.

THOUGH birds are fitted for sporting in air, yet as they find their food upon the surface of the earth, there seems a variety equal to the different aliments with which it tends to supply them. The flat and burning desert, the rocky cliff, the extensive fen, the stormy ocean, as well as the pleasing landscape, have all their peculiar inhabitants. The most obvious distinction therefore of birds, is into those that live by land and those that live by water; or, in other words, into *land birds*, and *water-fowl*.

It is no difficult matter to distinguish land from water-fowl, by the legs and toes. All land-birds have their toes divided, without any membrane or web between them; and their legs and feet serve them for the purposes of running, grasping, or climbing. On the other hand, water-fowl have their legs and feet formed for the purposes of wading in water, or swimming on its surface. In those that wade, the legs are usually long and naked; in those that swim, the toes are webbed together, as we see in the feet of a goose, which serve, like oars, to drive them forward with greater velocity. The formation, therefore, of land and water-fowl is as distinct as their habits; and nature herself seems to offer us this obvious distribution, in methodizing animals of the feathered creation.

However, a distinction so comprehensive goes but a short way in illustrating the different tribes of so numerous a class. The number of birds already known amounts to nearly three thousand; and every person who turns his mind to these kind of pursuits, is every day adding to the catalogue. It is not enough, therefore, to be able to distinguish a land from a water-fowl; much more is still required—to be able to distinguish the different kinds of birds from each other; and even the varieties in the same kind, when they happen to offer. This certainly is a work of great difficulty; and perhaps the attainment will not repay the labour. The sensible part of mankind will not withdraw all their attention from more important pursuits, to give it entirely up to what promises to repay them only with a very confined species of amusement. In my distribution of birds, therefore, I will follow Linnæus in the first sketch of his system; and then leave him, to follow the most natural distinctions, in enumerating the different kinds that admit of a history, or require a description.

Linnæus divides all birds into six classes; namely, into birds of the *rapacious kind*, birds of the *pie kind*, birds of the *poultry kind*, birds of the *sparrow kind*, birds of the *duck kind*, and birds of the *crane kind*. The four first comprehend the various kinds of land birds; the two last, those that belong to the water.

Birds of the *rapacious kind* constitute that class of carnivorous fowl that live by rapine. He distinguishes them by their beak, which is hooked, strong, and notched at the point; by their legs, which are short and muscular, and made for the purposes of tearing; by their toes, which are strong and knobbed; and their talons, which are sharp and crooked; by the make of their body, which is muscular; and their flesh, which is impure: nor are they less known by their food, which consists entirely of flesh; their stomach, which is membraneous; and their manners, which are fierce and cruel.

Birds of the *pie kind* have the bill differing from the former: as in those it resembled a hook, destined for tearing to pieces; in these it resembles a wedge, fitted for the purpose of cleaving. Their legs are formed short and strong, for walking; their body is slender and impure, and their

food miscellaneous. They nestle in trees; and the male feeds the female during the time of incubation.

Birds of the *poultry kind* have the bill a little convex, for the purposes of gathering their food. The upper chap hangs over the lower; their bodies are fat and muscular, and their flesh white and pure. They live upon grain, which is moistened in the crop. They make their nest on the ground without art; they lay many eggs, and use promiscuous venery.

Birds of the *sparrow kind* comprehend all that beautiful and vocal class that adorn our fields and groves, and gratify every sense in its turn. Their bills may be compared to a forceps that catches hold; their legs are formed for hopping along; their bodies are tender; pure in such as feed upon grain, impure in such as live upon insects. They live chiefly in trees; their nests are artificially made, and their amours are observed with connubial fidelity.

Birds of the *duck kind* use their bill as a kind of strainer to their food; it is smooth, covered with a skin, and nervous at the point. Their legs are short, and their feet formed for swimming, the toes being webbed together. Their body is fat, inclining to rancidity. They live in waters, and chiefly build their nests upon land.

With respect to the order of birds that belong to the waters, those of the *crane kind* have their bill formed for the purposes of searching and examining the bottom of pools; their legs are long, and formed for wading; their toes are not webbed; their thighs are half naked; their body is slender, and covered with a very thin skin; their tail is short, and their flesh savoury. They live in lakes upon animals, and they chiefly build their nests upon the ground.

Such is the division of Linnæus with respect to this class of animals; and at first sight it appears natural and comprehensive. But we must not be deceived by appearances: the student, who should imagine he was making a progress in the history of nature, while he was only thus making arbitrary distributions, would be very much mistaken. Should he come to enter deeper into this naturalist's plan, he would find birds the most unlike in nature thrown together into the same class; and find animals joined, that entirely differ in climate, in habitudes, in

manners, in shape, colouring, and size. In such a distribution, for instance, he would find the humming-bird and the raven, the rail and the ostrich, joined in the same family. If, when he asked what sort of a creature was the humming-bird, he were told that it was in the same class with the carrion-crow, would he not think himself imposed upon? In such a case, the only way to form any idea of the animal whose history he is desirous to know, is to see it; and that curiosity very few have an opportunity of gratifying. The number of birds is so great, that it might exhaust the patience not only of the writer, but the reader; to examine them all: in the present confined undertaking it would certainly be impossible. I will, therefore, now attach myself to a more natural method; and, still keeping the general division of Linnæus before me, enter into some description of the most noted, or the most worth knowing.

Under one or other class, as I shall treat them, the reader will probably find all the species, and all the varieties that demand his curiosity. When the leader of any tribe is described, and its history known, it will give a very tolerable idea of all the species contained under it. It is true, the reader will not thus have his knowledge ranged under such precise distinctions; nor can he be able to say with such fluency, that the rail is of the ostrich class; but what is much more material, he will have a tolerable history of the bird he desires to know, or at least of that which most resembles it in nature.

However, it may be proper to apprise the reader, that he will not here find his curiosity satisfied, as in the former volumes; where we often took Mr. Buffon for our guide. Those who have hitherto written the natural history of birds, have in general been contented with telling their names, or describing their toes or their plumage. It must often, therefore, happen, that instead of giving the history of a bird, we must be content to entertain the reader with merely its description. I will, therefore, divide the following history of birds, with Linnæus, into six parts; in the first of which I will give such as Brisson has ranged among the rapacious birds; next those of the pie kind; and thus go on through the succeeding classes, till I finish with those of the duck kind. But before I enter upon a

systematic detail, I will beg leave to give the history of three or four birds, that do not well range in any system. These, from their great size, are sufficiently distinguishable from the rest; and from their incapacity of flying, lead a life a good deal differing from the rest of the feathered creation. The birds I mean are the Ostrich, the Cassowary, the Emu, the Dodo, and the Solitaire.

CHAP. IV.

THE OSTRICH.

IN beginning with the feathered tribe, the first animal that offers seems to unite the class of quadrupeds and of birds in itself. While it has the general outline and properties of a bird, yet it retains many of the marks of the quadruped. In appearance the ostrich resembles the camel, and is almost as tall; it is covered with a plumage that resembles hair much more nearly than feathers, and its internal parts bear as near a similitude to those of the quadruped, as of the bird creation. It may be considered, therefore, as an animal made to fill up that chasm in nature which separates one class of beings from another.

The ostrich is the largest of all birds. Travellers affirm, that they are seen as tall as a man on horseback; and even some of those that have been brought into England were above seven feet high. The head and bill somewhat resemble those of a duck; and the neck may be likened to that of a swan, but that it is much longer; the legs and thighs resemble those of a hen; though the whole appearance bears a strong resemblance to that of a camel. But to be more particular: it is usually seven feet high from the top of the head to the ground; but from the back it is only four; so that the head and neck are above three feet long. From the top of the head to the rump, when the neck is stretched out in a right line, it is six feet long, and the tail is about a foot more. One of the wings, without the feathers, is a foot and a half; and being stretched out, with the feathers, is three feet.

The plumage is much alike in all; that is, generally black and white; though some of them are said to be gray. The

greatest feathers are at the extremities of the wings and tail, and the largest are generally white. The next row is black and white; and of the small feathers, on the back and belly, some are white and others black. There are no feathers on the sides, nor yet on the thighs, nor under the wings. The lower part of the neck, about half way, is covered with still smaller feathers than those on the belly and back; and those, like the former, also are of different colours.

All these feathers are of the same kind, and peculiar to the ostrich; for other birds have several sorts, some of which are soft and downy, and others hard and strong. Ostrich feathers are almost all as soft as down, being utterly unfit to serve the animal for flying, and still less adapted to be a proper defence against external injury. The feathers of other birds have the webs broader on one side than the other, but those of the ostrich have their shaft exactly in the middle. The upper part of the head and neck are covered with a very fine, clear, white hair, that shines like the bristles of a hog; and in some places there are small tufts of it, consisting of about twelve hairs, which grow from a single shaft about the thickness of a pin.

At the end of each wing there is a kind of spur, almost like the quill of a porcupine. It is an inch long, being hollow, and of a horny substance. There are two of these on each wing; the largest of which is at the extremity of the bone of the wing, and the other a foot lower. The neck seems to be more slender in proportion to that of other birds; from its not being furnished with feathers. The skin in this part is of a livid flesh-colour, which some improperly would have to be blue. The bill is short and pointed, and two inches and a half at the beginning. The external form of the eye is like that of man, the upper eye-lid being adorned with eye-lashes, which are longer than those on the lid below. The tongue is small, very short, and composed of cartilages, ligaments, and membranes, intermixed with fleshy fibres. In some it is about an inch long, and very thick at the bottom. In others it is but half an inch, being a little forked at the end.

The thighs are very fleshy and large, being covered with a white skin, inclining to redness, and wrinkled in the manner of a net, whose meshes will admit the end of a finger. Some have very small feathers here and there on the thighs; and

others again have neither feathers nor wrinkles. What are called the legs of birds, in this are covered before with large scales. The end of the foot is cloven, and has two very large toes, which, like the leg, are covered with scales. These toes are of unequal sizes. The largest, which is on the inside, is seven inches long, including the claw, which is near three-fourths of an inch in length, and almost as broad. The other toe is but four inches long, and is without a claw.

The internal parts of this animal are formed with no less surprising peculiarity. At the top of the breast, under the skin, the fat is two inches thick; and on the fore part of the belly it is as hard as suet, and about two inches and a half thick in some places. It has two distinct stomachs. The first, which is lowermost, in its natural situation somewhat resembles the crop in other birds; but it is considerably larger than the other stomach, and is furnished with strong muscular fibres, as well circular as longitudinal. The second stomach, or gizzard, has outwardly the shape of the stomach of a man; and, upon opening, is always found filled with a variety of discordant substances; hay, grass, barley, beans, bones, and stones, some of which exceed in size a pullet's egg. The kidneys are eight inches long and two broad, and differ from those of other birds in not being divided into lobes. The heart and lungs are separated by a midriff, as in quadrupeds, and the parts of generation also bear a very strong resemblance and analogy.

Such is the structure of this animal, forming the shade that unites birds and quadrupeds; and from this structure its habits and manners are entirely peculiar. It is a native only of the torrid regions of Africa, and has long been celebrated by those who have had occasion to mention the animals of that region. Its flesh is proscribed in scripture as unfit to be eaten; and most of the ancient writers describe it as well known in their times. Like the race of the elephant, it is transmitted down without mixture; and has never been known to breed out of that country which first produced it. It seems formed to live among the sandy and burning deserts of the torrid zone; and, as in some measure it owes its birth to their genial influence, so it seldom migrates into tracts more mild or more fertile. As that is the peculiar country of the elephant, the rhinoceros, and camel,

so it may readily be supposed capable of affording a retreat to the ostrich. They inhabit, from preference, the most solitary and horrid deserts, where there are few vegetables to clothe the surface of the earth, and where the rain never comes to refresh it. The Arabians assert that the ostrich never drinks; and the place of its habitation seems to confirm the assertion. In these formidable regions, ostriches are seen in large flocks, which to the distant spectator appear like a regiment of cavalry, and have often alarmed a whole caravan. There is no desert, how barren soever, but what is capable of supplying these animals with provision; they eat almost every thing; and these barren tracts are thus doubly grateful, as they afford both food and security. The ostrich is of all other animals, the most voracious. It will devour leather, glass, hair, iron, stones, or any thing that is given. Nor are its powers of digestion less in such things as are digestible. Those substances which the coats of the stomach cannot soften, pass whole; so that glass, stones, or iron, are excluded in the form in which they were devoured. All metals, indeed, which are swallowed by any animal, lose a part of their weight, and often the extremities of their figure, from the action of the juices of the stomach upon their surface. A quarter pistole, which was swallowed by a duck, lost seven grains of its weight in the gizzard before it was voided; and it is probable that a still greater diminution of weight would happen in the stomach of an ostrich. Considered in this light, therefore, this animal may be said to digest iron; but such substances seldom remain long enough in the stomach of any animal to undergo so tedious a dissolution. However this be, the ostrich swallows almost every thing presented to it. Whether this be from the necessity which smaller birds are under of picking up gravel to keep the coats of their stomach asunder, or whether it be from a want of distinguishing by the taste what substances are fit and what incapable of digestion; certain it is, that in the ostrich dissected by Ranby there appeared such a quantity of heterogeneous substances, that it was wonderful how any animal could digest such an overcharge of nourishment. Valisnieri also found the first stomach filled with a quantity of incongruous substances; grass, nuts, cords, stones, glass, brass, copper, iron, tin, lead, and wood; a piece of stone was found among the rest that weighed more than a pound. He saw one of

these animals that was killed by devouring a quantity of quick-lime. It would seem that the ostrich is obliged to fill up the great capacity of its stomach in order to be at ease; but that nutritious substances not occurring, it pours in whatever offers to supply the void.

In their native deserts, however, it is probable they live chiefly upon vegetables, where they lead an inoffensive and social life; the male, as Thevenot assures us, assorting with the female with connubial fidelity. They are said to be very much inclined to venery; and the make of the parts in both sexes seems to confirm the report. It is probable also they copulate, like other birds, by compression; and they lay very large eggs, some of them being above five inches in diameter, and weighing above fifteen pounds. These eggs have a very hard shell, somewhat resembling those of the crocodile, except that those of the latter are less and rounder.

The season for laying depends on the climate where the animal is bred. In the northern parts of Africa, this season is about the beginning of July; in the south, it is about the latter end of December. These birds are very prolific, and lay generally from forty to fifty eggs at one clutch. It has been commonly reported that the female deposits them in the sand; and, covering them up, leaves them to be hatched by the heat of the climate, and then permits the young to shift for themselves. Very little of this, however, is true: no bird has a stronger affection for her young than the ostrich, nor none watches her eggs with greater assiduity. It happens, indeed, in those hot climates, that there is less necessity for the continual incubation of the female; and she more frequently leaves her eggs, which are in no fear of being chilled by the weather: but though she sometimes forsakes them by day, she always carefully broods over them by night; and Kolben, who has seen great numbers of them at the Cape of Good Hope, affirms that they sit on their eggs like other birds, and that the male and female take this office by turns; as he had frequent opportunities of observing. Nor is it more true what is said of their forsaking their young after they are excluded the shell. On the contrary, the young ones are not even able to walk for several days after they are hatched. During this time, the old ones are very assiduous in supplying them with grass, and very careful to defend them

from danger; nay, they encounter every danger in their defence. It was a way of taking them among the ancients, to plant a number of sharp stakes round the ostrich's nest in her absence, upon which she pierced herself at her return. The young, when brought forth, are of an ash-colour the first year, and are covered with feathers all over. But in time these feathers drop; and those parts which are covered assume a different and more becoming plumage.

The beauty of a part of this plumage, particularly the long feathers that compose the wings and tail, is the chief reason that man has been so active in pursuing this harmless bird to its deserts, and hunting it with no small degree of expense and labour. The ancients used those plumes in their helmets; the ladies of the East make them an ornament in their dress; and, among us, our undertakers and our fine gentlemen still make use of them to decorate their hearses and their hats. Those feathers which are plucked from the animal while alive, are much more valued than those taken when dead; the latter being dry, light, and subject to be worm-eaten.

Beside the value of their plumage, some of the savage nations of Africa hunt them also for their flesh, which they consider as a dainty. They sometimes also breed these birds tame, to eat the young ones, of which the female is said to be the greatest delicacy. Some nations have obtained the name of *Struthophagi*, or ostrich-eaters, from their peculiar fondness for this food; and even the Romans themselves were not averse to it. Apicius gives a receipt for making sauce for the ostrich; and Heliogabalus is noted for having dressed the brains of six hundred ostriches in one dish; for it was his custom never to eat but of one dish in a day, but that was an expensive one. Even among the Europeans now, the eggs of the ostrich are said to be well tasted, and extremely nourishing; but they are too scarce to be fed upon, although a single egg be a sufficient entertainment for eight men.

As the spoils of the ostrich are thus valuable, it is not to be wondered at that man has become their most assiduous pursuer. For this purpose, the Arabians train up their best and fleetest horses, and hunt the ostrich still in view. Perhaps of all other varieties of the chase, this, though the most laborious, is yet the most entertaining. As soon as the

hunter comes within sight of his prey, he puts on his horse with a gentle gallop, so as to keep the ostrich still in sight; yet not so as to terrify him from the plain into the mountains. Of all known animals that make use of their legs in running, the ostrich is by far the swiftest; upon observing himself therefore pursued at a distance, he begins to run at first but gently; either insensible of his danger, or sure of escaping. In this situation he somewhat resembles a man at full speed; his wings, like two arms, keep working with a motion correspondent to that of his legs: and his speed would very soon snatch him from the view of his pursuers; but, unfortunately for the silly creature, instead of going off in a direct line, he takes his course in circles; while the hunters still make a small course within, relieve each other, meet him at unexpected turns, and keep him thus still employed, still followed for two or three days together. At last, spent with fatigue and famine, and finding all power of escape impossible, he endeavours to hide himself from those enemies he cannot avoid, and covers his head in the sand; or the first thicket he meets. Sometimes, however, he attempts to face his pursuers; and, though in general the most gentle animal in nature, when driven to desperation, he defends himself with his beak, his wings, and his feet. Such is the force of his motion, that a man would be utterly unable to withstand him in the shock.

The Struthophagi have another method of taking this bird; they cover themselves with an ostrich's skin, and passing up an arm through the neck, thus counterfeit all the motions of this animal. By this artifice they approach the ostrich, which becomes an easy prey. He is sometimes also taken by dogs and nets, but the most usual way is that mentioned above.

When the Arabians have thus taken an ostrich, they cut its throat, and making a ligature below the opening, they shake the bird, as one would rince a barrel; then taking off the ligature, there runs out from the wound in the throat a considerable quantity of blood, mixed with the fat of the animal; and this is considered one of their greatest dainties. They next flay the bird; and of the skin, which is strong and thick, sometimes make a kind of vest, which answers the purposes of a cuirass and a buckler.

There are others who, more compassionate or more provident, do not kill their captive, but endeavour to tame it, for the purposes of supplying those feathers which are in so great request. The inhabitants of Dara and Lybia breed up whole flocks of them, and they are tamed with very little trouble. But it is not for their feathers alone that they are prized in this domestic state; they are often ridden upon, and used as horses. Moore assures us, that at Joar he saw a man travelling upon an ostrich; and Adanson asserts, that, at the factory of Podore, he had two ostriches, which were then young, the strongest of which ran swifter than the best English racer, although he carried two negroes on his back. As soon as the animal perceived that it was loaded, it set off running with all its force, and made several circuits round the village; till at length the people were obliged to stop it, by barring up the way. How far this strength and swiftness may be useful to mankind, even in a polished state, is a matter that perhaps deserves inquiry. Posterity may avail themselves of this creature's abilities; and riding upon an ostrich may one day become the favourite, as it most certainly is the swiftest, mode of conveyance.

The parts of this animal are said to be convertible to many salutary purposes in medicine. The fat is said to be emollient and relaxing; that while it relaxes the tendons, it fortifies the nervous system; and being applied to the region of the loins, it abates the pains of the stone in the kidneys. The shell of the egg powdered, and given in proper quantities, is said to be useful in promoting urine, and dissolving the stone in the bladder. The substance of the egg itself is thought to be peculiarly nourishing: however, Galen, in mentioning this, asserts, that the eggs of hens and pheasants are good to be eaten; those of geese and ostriches are the worst of all.

CHAP. V.

THE EMU.

OF this bird, which many call the American Ostrich, but little is certainly known. It is an inhabitant of the New Continent; and the travellers who have mentioned it, seem to have been more solicitous in proving its affinity to the ostrich, than in describing those peculiarities which distinguish it from all others of the feathered creation.

It is chiefly found in Guiana, along the banks of the Oroonoko, in the inland provinces of Brasil and Chili, and the vast forests that border on the mouth of the river Plata. Many other parts of South America were known to have them; but as men multiplied, these large and timorous birds either fell beneath their superior power, or fled from their vicinity.

The Emu, though not so large as the ostrich, is only second to it in magnitude. It is by much the largest bird in the New Continent; and is generally found to be six feet high, measuring from its head to the ground: Its legs are three feet long; and its thigh is near as thick as that of a man. The toes differ from those of the ostrich; as there are three in the American bird, and but two in the former. Its neck is long, its head small, and the bill flattened, like that of the ostrich; but in all other respects it more resembles the Cassowary, a large bird, to be described hereafter. The form of the body appears round; the wings are short, and entirely unfitted for flying, and it wants a tail. It is covered from the back and rump with long feathers, which fall backward, and cover the anus; these feathers are gray upon the back, and white on the belly. It goes very swiftly, and seems assisted in its motion by a kind of tubercle behind, like an heel, upon which, on plain ground, it treads very securely; in its course it uses a very odd kind of action, lifting up one wing, which it keeps elevated for a time; till letting it drop, it lifts up the other. What the bird's intention may

be in thus keeping only one wing up, is not easy to discover ; whether it makes use of this as a sail to catch the wind, or whether as a rudder to turn its course, in order to avoid the arrows of the Indians, yet remains to be ascertained : however this be, the emu runs with such swiftness, that the fleetest dogs are thrown out in the pursuit. One of them, finding itself surrounded by the hunters, darted among the dogs with such fury, that they made way to avoid its rage ; and it escaped, by its amazing velocity, in safety to the mountains.

As this bird is but little known, so travellers have given a loose to their imaginations in describing some of its actions, which they were conscious could not be easily contradicted. This animal, says Nierenberg, is very peculiar in the hatching of its young. The male compels twenty or thirty of the females to lay their eggs in one nest ; he then, when they have done laying, chases them away, and places himself upon the eggs ; however, he takes the singular precaution of laying two of the number aside, which he does not sit upon. When the young ones come forth, these two eggs are addled ; which the male having foreseen, breaks one, and then the other, upon which multitudes of flies are found to settle ; and these supply the young brood with a sufficiency of provision, till they are able to shift for themselves.

On the other hand, Wafer asserts, that he has seen great quantities of this animal's eggs on the desert shores, north of the river Plata ; where they were buried in the sand, in order to be hatched by the heat of the climate. Both this, as well as the preceding account, may be doubted ; and it is more probable that it was the crocodile's eggs which Wafer had seen, which are undoubtedly hatched in that manner.

When the young ones are hatched, they are familiar, and follow the first person they meet. I have been followed myself, says Wafer, by many of these young ostriches ; which, at first, are extremely harmless and simple : but as they grow older, they become more cunning and distrustful ; and run so swift, that a greyhound can scarcely overtake them. Their flesh, in general, is good to be eaten ; especially if they be young. It would be no difficult matter to rear up flocks of these animals tame, particularly as

they are naturally so familiar : and they might be found to answer domestic purposes, like the hen or the turkey. Their maintenance could not be expensive, if, as Narborough says, they live entirely upon grass.

CHAP. VI.

THE CASSOWARY.

THE Cassowary is a bird which was first brought into Europe by the Dutch, from Java, in the East Indies, in which part of the world it is only to be found. Next to the preceding, it is the largest and the heaviest of the feathered species.

The cassowary, though not so large as the former, yet appears more bulky to the eye ; its body being nearly equal, and its neck and legs much thicker and stronger in proportion ; this conformation gives it an air of strength and force, which the fierceness and singularity of its countenance conspire to render formidable. It is five feet and a half long, from the point of the bill to the extremity of the claws. The legs are two feet and a half high, from the belly to the end of the claws. The head and neck together are a foot and a half ; and the largest toe, including the claw, is five inches long. The claw alone of the least toe, is three inches and a half in length. The wing is so small, that it does not appear ; it being hid under the feathers of the back. In other birds, a part of the feathers serve for flight, and are different from those that serve for merely covering ; but in the cassowary, all the feathers are of the same kind, and outwardly of the same colour. They are generally double ; having two long shafts, which grow out of a short one, which is fixed in the skin. Those that are double, are always of an unequal length ; for some are fourteen inches long, particularly on the rump ; while others are not above three. The beards that adorn the stem or shaft, are, from about half way to the end, very long, and as thick as a horse hair, without being subdivided into fibres. The stem or shaft is flat, shining, black,

and knotted below; and from each knot there proceeds a beard: likewise the beards at the end of the large feathers are perfectly black; and towards the root of a gray tawny colour; shorter, more soft, and throwing out fine fibres like down; so that nothing appears except the ends, which are hard and black; because the other part, composed of down, is quite covered. There are feathers on the head and neck; but they are so short and thinly sown, that the bird's skin appears naked, except towards the hinder part of the head, where they are a little longer. The feathers which adorn the rump are extremely thick; but do not differ, in other respects, from the rest, excepting their being longer. The wings, when they are deprived of their feathers, are but three inches long; and the feathers are like those on other parts of the body. The ends of the wings are adorned with five prickles, of different lengths and thickness, which bend like a bow; these are hollow from the roots to the very points, having only that slight substance within, which all quills are known to have. The longest of these prickles is eleven inches; and it is a quarter of an inch in diameter at the root, being thicker there than towards the extremity; the point seems broken off.

The part, however, which most distinguishes this animal is the head: this, though small, like that of an ostrich, does not fail to inspire some degree of terror. It is bare of feathers, and is in a manner armed with an helmet of horny substance, that covers it from the root of the bill to near half the head backwards. This helmet is black before and yellow behind. Its substance is very hard, being formed by the elevation of the bone of the skull; and it consists of several plates, one over another, like the horn of an ox. Some have supposed that this was shed every year with the feathers; but the most probable opinion is, that it only oxfoliates slowly like the beak. To the peculiar oddity of this natural armour may be added the colour of the eye in this animal, which is a bright yellow, and the globe being above an inch and a half in diameter, gives it an air equally fierce and extraordinary. At the bottom of the upper eye-lid, there is a row of small hairs, over which there is another row of black hair, which look pretty much like an eye-brow. The lower eye-lid, which is the

largest of the two, is furnished also with plenty of black hair. The hole of the ear is very large and open, being only covered with small black feathers. The sides of the head, about the eye and ear, being destitute of any covering, are blue, except the middle of the lower eye-lid, which is white. The part of the bill which answers to the upper jaw in other animals, is very hard at the edges above, and the extremity of it like that of a turkey-cock. The end of the lower mandible is slightly notched, and the whole is of a grayish brown, except a green spot on each side. As the beak admits a very wide opening, this contributes not a little to the bird's menacing appearance. The neck is of a violet colour, inclining to that of slate; and it is red behind in several places, but chiefly in the middle. About the middle of the neck before, at the rise of the large feathers, there are two processes formed by the skin, which resemble somewhat the gills of a cock, but that they are blue as well as red. The skin which covers the fore-part of the breast, on which this bird leans and rests, is hard, callous, and without feathers. The thighs and legs are covered with feathers, and are extremely thick, strong, straight, and covered with scales of several shapes; but the legs are thicker a little above the foot than in any other place. The toes are likewise covered with scales, and are but three in number; for that which should be behind is wanting. The claws are of a hard solid substance, black without, and white within.

The internal parts are equally remarkable. The cassowary unites with the double stomach of animals that live upon vegetables, the short intestines of those that live upon flesh. The intestines of the cassowary are thirteen times shorter than those of the ostrich. The heart is very small, being but an inch and a half long, and an inch broad at the base. Upon the whole, it has the head of a warrior, the eye of a lion, the defence of a porcupine, and the swiftness of a courser.

Thus formed for a life of hostility, for terrifying others, and for its own defence, it might be expected that the cassowary was one of the most fierce and terrible animals of the creation. But nothing is so opposite to its natural character, nothing so different from the life it is contented to lead. It never attacks others; and, instead of the bill,

when attacked, it rather makes use of its legs, and kicks like a horse, or runs against its pursuer, beats him down, and treads him to the ground.

The manner of going of this animal is not less extraordinary than its appearance: Instead of going directly forward, it seems to kick up behind with one leg, and then making a bound onward with the other, it goes with such prodigious velocity, that the swiftest racer would be left far behind.

The same degree of voraciousness which we perceive in the ostrich, obtains as strongly here. The cassowary swallows every thing that comes within the capacity of its gullet. The Dutch assert, that it can devour not only glass, iron, and stones, but even live on burning coals, without testifying the smallest fear, or feeling the least injury. It is said, that the passage of the food through its gullet is performed so speedily, that even the very eggs which it has swallowed whole, pass through it unbroken, in the same form they went down. In fact, the alimentary canal of this animal, as was observed above, is extremely short; and it may happen that many kinds of food are indigestible in its stomach, as wheat or currants are to a man when swallowed whole.

The cassowary's eggs are of a gray ash colour, inclining to green. They are not so large nor so round as those of the ostrich. They are marked with a number of little tubercles of a deep green, and the shell is not very thick. The largest of these is found to be fifteen inches round one way, and about twelve the other.

The southern parts of the most eastern Indies seems to be the natural climate of the cassowary. His domain, if we may so call it, begins where that of the ostrich terminates. The latter has never been found beyond the Ganges; while the cassowary is never seen nearer than the islands of Banda, Sumatra, Java, the Molucca Islands, and the corresponding parts of the continent. Yet even here this animal seems not to have multiplied in any considerable degree, as we find one of the kings of Java making a present of one of these birds to the captain of a Dutch ship, considering it as a very great rarity. The ostrich, that has kept in the desert and unpeopled regions of Africa, is still numerous, and the unrivalled tenant of

its own inhospitable climate. But the cassowary, that is the inhabitant of a more peopled and polished region, is growing scarcer every day. It is thus that in proportion as man multiplies, all the savage and noxious animals fly before him: at his approach they quit their ancient habitations, how adapted soever they may be to their natures, and seek a more peaceable, though barren, retreat: where they willingly exchange plenty for freedom; and encounter all the dangers of famine, to avoid the oppressions of an unrelenting destroyer.

CHAP. VII.

THE DODO.

MANKIND have generally made swiftness the attribute of birds; but the dodo has no title to this distinction. Instead of exciting the idea of swiftness by its appearance, it seems to strike the imagination as a thing the most unwieldy and inactive of all nature. Its body is massive, almost round, and covered with gray feathers; it is just barely supported upon two short thick legs, like pillars, while its head and neck rise from it in a manner truly grotesque. The neck, thick and puffy, is joined to the head, which consists of two great chaps, that open far behind the eyes, which are large, black, and prominent; so that the animal, when it gapes, seems to be all mouth. The bill, therefore, is of an extraordinary length, not flat and broad, but thick, and of a bluish white, sharp at the end, and each chap crooked in opposite directions. They resemble two pointed spoons that are laid together by the backs. From all this results a stupid and voracious physiognomy; which is still more increased by a bordering of feathers round the root of the beak, and which gives the appearance of a hood or cowl, and finishes this picture of stupid deformity. Bulk, which in other animals implies strength, in this only contributes to inactivity. The ostrich, or the cassowary, are no more able to fly than the animal before us; but then they supply that defect by their speed in running. The dodo seems weighed down by its own heaviness, and has scarcely strength to

urge itself forward. It seems among birds what the sloth is among quadrupeds, an unresisting thing, equally incapable of flight or defence. It is furnished with wings, covered with soft ash-coloured feathers, but they are too short to assist it in flying. It is furnished with a tail, with a few small curled feathers; but this tail is disproportioned and displaced. Its legs are too short for running, and its body too fat to be strong. One would take it for a tortoise that had supplied itself with the feathers of a bird; and that thus dressed out with the instruments of flight, it was only still the more unwieldy.

This bird is a native of the Isle of France; and the Dutch, who first discovered it there, called it, in their language, the nauseous bird, as well from its disgusting figure as from the bad taste of its flesh. However, succeeding observers contradict the first report, and assert that its flesh is good and wholesome eating. It is a silly simple bird, as may very well be supposed from its figure, and is very easily taken. Three or four dodos are enough to dine a hundred men.

Whether the dodo be the same bird with that which some travellers have described under the bird of Nazareth, yet remains uncertain. The country from whence they both come is the same; their incapacity of flying is the same; the form of the wings and body in both are similar; but the chief difference given is in the colour of the feathers, which in the female of the bird of Nazareth are said to be extremely beautiful; and in the length of their legs, which in the dodo are short; in the other, are described as long. Time and future observation must clear up these doubts; and the testimony of a single witness, who shall have seen both, will throw more light on the subject than the reasonings of a hundred philosophers.

BOOK II.

OF RAPACIOUS BIRDS.

CHAP. I.

OF RAPACIOUS BIRDS IN GENERAL.*

THERE seems to obtain a general resemblance in all the classes of nature. As among quadrupeds, a part were seen to live upon the vegetable productions of the earth, and another part upon the flesh of each other; so among birds, some live upon vegetable food, and others by rapine, destroying all such as want force or swiftness to procure their safety. By thus peopling the woods with animals of different dispositions, nature has wisely provided for the multiplication of life; since, could we suppose that there were as many animals produced as there were vegetables supplied to sustain them, yet there might still be another class of animals formed, which could find a sufficient sustenance by feeding upon such of the vegetable feeders as happened to fall by the course of nature. By this contrivance, a greater number will be sustained upon the whole; for the numbers would be but very thin were every creature a candidate for the same food. Thus, by supplying a variety of appetites, nature has also multiplied life in her productions.

In thus varying their appetites, nature has also varied the form of the animal; and while she has given some an instinctive passion for animal food, she has also furnished them with powers to obtain it. All land-birds of the rapacious kinds are furnished with a large head, and a

* The animals of this order are all carnivorous: they associate in pairs, build their nests in the most lofty situations, and produce generally four young ones at a brood: and the female is mostly larger than the male. They consist of vultures, eagles, hawks, and owls.

strong crooked beak, notched at the end, for the purpose of tearing their prey. They have strong short legs, and sharp crooked talons, for the purpose of seizing it. Their bodies are formed for war, being fibrous and muscular; and their wings for swiftness of flight, being well feathered and expansive. The sight of such as prey by day is astonishingly quick; and such as ravage by night, have their sight so fitted as to see objects in darkness with extreme precision.

Their internal parts are equally formed for the food they seek for. Their stomach is simple and membranous, and wrapt in fat to increase the powers of digestion; and their intestines are short and glandular. As their food is succulent and juicy, they want no length of intestinal tube to form it into proper nourishment. Their food is flesh; which does not require a slow digestion to be converted into a similitude of substance to their own.

Thus formed for war, they lead a life of solitude and rapacity. They inhabit by choice the most lonely places, and the most desert mountains. They make their nests in the clefts of rocks, and on the highest and most inaccessible trees of the forest. Whenever they appear in the cultivated plain or the warbling grove, it is only for the purposes of depredation; and are gloomy intruders on the general joy of the landscape. They spread terror wherever they approach: all that variety of music which but a moment before enlivened the grove, at their appearing is instantly at an end: every order of lesser birds seek for safety, either by concealment or flight; and some are even driven to take protection with man, to avoid their less merciful pursuers.

It would indeed be fatal to all the smaller race of birds, if, as they are weaker than all, they were also pursued by all; but it is contrived wisely for their safety, that every order of carnivorous birds seek only for such as are of the size most approaching their own. The eagle flies at the bustard or the pheasant; the sparrow-hawk pursues the thrush and the linnet. Nature has provided that each species should make war only on such as are furnished with adequate means of escape. The smallest birds avoid their pursuers by the extreme agility, rather than the swiftness of their flight; for every order would soon be at an

end, if the eagle, to its own swiftness of wing, added the versatility of the sparrow.

Another circumstance which tends to render the tyranny of these animals more supportable, is, that they are less fruitful than other birds; breeding but few at a time. Those of the larger kind seldom produce above four eggs, often but two; those of the smaller kinds, never above six or seven. The pigeon, it is true, which is their prey, never breeds above two at a time; but then she breeds every month in the year. The carnivorous kinds only breed annually, and, of consequence, their fecundity is small in comparison.

As they are fierce by nature, and are difficult to be tamed, so this fierceness extends even to their young, which they force from the nest sooner than birds of the gentler kind. Other birds seldom forsake their young till able, completely, to provide for themselves: the rapacious kinds expel them from the nest at a time when they still should protect and support them. This severity to their young proceeds from the necessity of providing for themselves. All animals that, by the conformation of their stomach and intestines, are obliged to live upon flesh, and support themselves by prey, though they may be mild when young, soon become fierce and mischievous, by the very habit of using those arms with which they are supplied by nature. As it is only by the destruction of other animals that they can subsist, they become more furious every day; and even the parental feelings are overpowered in their general habits of cruelty. If the power of obtaining a supply be difficult, the old ones soon drive their brood from the nest to shift for themselves, and often destroy them in a fit of fury caused by hunger.

Another effect of this natural and acquired severity is, that almost all birds of prey are unsociable. It has long been observed by Aristotle, that all birds with crooked beaks and talons are solitary: like quadrupeds of the cat kind, they lead a lonely wandering life, and are united only in pairs, by that instinct which overpowers their rapacious habits of enmity with all other animals. As the male and female are often necessary to each other in their pursuits, so they sometimes live together; but except at

certain seasons, they most usually prowl alone; and, like robbers, enjoy in solitude the fruits of their plunder.

All birds of prey are remarkable for one singularity, for which it is not easy to account. All the males of these birds are about a third less, and weaker than the females, contrary to what obtains among quadrupeds, among which the males are always the largest and the boldest: from thence the male is called by falconers a *tarcel*; that is, a tierce or third less than the other. The reason of this difference cannot proceed from the necessity of a larger body in the female for the purposes of breeding, and that her volume is thus increased by the quantity of her eggs; for in other birds, that breed much faster, and that lay in much greater proportion, such as the hen, the duck, or the pheasant, the male is by much the largest of the two.

Whatever be the cause, certain it is, that the females, as Willoughby expresses it, are of greater size, more beautiful and lovely for shape and colours, stronger, more fierce and generous, than the males; whether it may be that it is necessary for the female to be thus superior, as it is incumbent upon her to provide, not only for herself, but her young ones also.

These birds, like quadrupeds of the carnivorous kind, are all lean and meagre. Their flesh is stringy and ill-tasted, soon corrupting, and tinctured with the flavour of that animal food upon which they subsist. Nevertheless, Belonius asserts, that many people admire the flesh of the vulture and falcon, and dress them for eating, when they meet with any accident that unfits them for the chase. He asserts, that the osprey, a species of the eagle, when young, is excellent food; but he contents himself with advising us to breed these birds up for our pleasure rather in the field, than for the table.

Of land birds of a rapacious nature, there are five kinds. The eagle kind, the hawk kind, the vulture kind, the horned and the screech owl kind. The distinctive marks of this class are taken from their claws and beak: their toes are separated: their legs are feathered to the heel: their toes are four in number; three before, one behind: their beak is short, thick, and crooked.

The eagle kind is distinguished from the rest by his beak,

which is straight till towards the end, when it begins to hook downwards.

The vulture kind is distinguished by the head and neck ; which are without feathers.

The hawk kind by the beak ; being hooked from the very root.

The horned owl by the feathers at the base of the bill standing forwards ; and by some feathers on the head that stand out, resembling horns.

The screech-owl by the feathers at the base of the bill standing forward, and being without horns. A description of one in each kind, will serve for all the rest.

CHAP. II.

THE EAGLE AND ITS AFFINITIES.

THE Golden Eagle is the largest and the noblest of all those birds that have received the name of eagle. It weighs above twelve pounds. Its length is three feet ; the extent of its wings, seven feet four inches ; the bill is three inches long, and of a deep blue colour ; and the eye of a hazel colour. The sight and sense of smelling, are very acute. The head and neck are clothed with narrow sharp-pointed feathers, and of a deep brown colour, bordered with tawny ; but those on the crown of the head, in very old birds, turn grey. The whole body, above as well as beneath, is of a dark brown ; and the feathers of the back are finely clouded with a deeper shade of the same. The wings, when clothed, reach to the end of the tail. The quill-feathers are of a chocolate colour, the shafts white. The tail is of a deep brown, irregularly barred and blotched with an obscure ash-colour, and usually white at the roots of the feathers. The legs are yellow, short, and very strong, being three inches in circumference, and feathered to the very feet. The toes are covered with large scales, and armed with the most formidable claws, the middle of which are two inches long.

In the rear of this terrible bird follow the *ring-tailed eagle*, the *common eagle*, the *bald eagle*, the *white eagle*, the *kough-footed eagle*, the *erne*, the *black eagle*, the *osprey*, the *sea eagle*, and the *crowned eagle*. These, and

others that might be added, form different shades in this fierce family; but have all the same rapacity, the same general form, the same habits, and the same manner of bringing up their young.

In general, these birds are found in mountainous and ill-peopled countries, and breed among the loftiest cliffs. They choose those places which are remotest from man, upon whose possessions they but seldom make their depredations, being contented rather to follow the wild game in the forest, than to risque their safety to satisfy their hunger.

This fierce animal may be considered among birds as the lion among quadrupeds; and in many respects they have a strong similitude to each other. They are both possessed of force, and an empire over their fellows of the forest. Equally magnanimous, they disdain smaller plunder; and only pursue animals worthy the conquest. It is not till after having been long provoked, by the cries of the rook or the magpie, that this generous bird thinks fit to punish them with death: the eagle also disdains to share the plunder of another bird; and will take up with no other prey but that which he has acquired by his own pursuits. How hungry soever he may be, he never stoops to carrion; and when satiated, he never returns to the same carcase, but leaves it for other animals, more rapacious and less delicate than he. Solitary, like the lion, he keeps the desert to himself alone; it is as extraordinary to see two pair of eagles in the same mountain, as two lions in the same forest. They keep separate, to find a more ample supply; and consider the quantity of their game as the best proof of their dominion. Nor does the similitude of these animals stop here: they have both sparkling eyes, and nearly of the same colour; their claws are of the same form, their breath equally strong, and their cry equally loud and terrifying. Bred both for war, they are enemies of all society: alike fierce, proud, and incapable of being easily tamed. It requires great patience and much art to tame an eagle; and even though taken young, and brought under by long assiduity, yet still it is a dangerous domestic, and often turns its force against its master. When brought into the field for the purposes of fowling, the falconer is never sure of its attachment: that innate pride, and love of liberty, still prompt it to regain its native soli-

tudes ; and the moment the falconer sees it, when let loose, first stoop towards the ground ; and then rise perpendicularly into the clouds, he gives up all his former labour for lost ; quite sure of never beholding his late prisoner more. Sometimes, however, they are brought to have an attachment for their feeder ; they are then highly serviceable, and liberally provide for his pleasures and support. When the falconer lets them go from his hand, they play about and hover round him till their game presents, which they see at an immense distance, and pursue with certain destruction.

Of all animals the eagle flies highest ; and from thence the ancients have given him the epithet of *the bird of heaven*. Of all others also, he has the quickest eye ; but his sense of smelling is far inferior to that of the vulture. He never pursues, therefore, but in sight ; and when he has seized his prey, he stoops from his height, as if to examine its weight, always laying it on the ground before he carries it off. As his wing is very powerful, yet, as he has but little suppleness in the joints of the leg, he finds it difficult to rise when down ; however, if not instantly pursued, he finds no difficulty in carrying off geese and cranes. He also carries away hares, lambs, and kids ; and often destroys fawns and calves, to drink their blood, and carries a part of their flesh to his retreat. Infants themselves, when left unattended, have been destroyed by these rapacious creatures ; which probably gave rise to the fable of Ganymede's being snatched up by an eagle to heaven.

An instance is recorded in Scotland of two children being carried off by eagles ; but fortunately they received no hurt by the way ; and, the eagles being pursued, the children were restored unhurt out of the nests to the affrighted parents.

The eagle is thus at all times a formidable neighbour ; but peculiarly when bringing up its young. It is then that the female, as well as the male, exert all their force and industry to supply their young. Smith, in his history of Kerry, relates, that a poor man in that country got a comfortable subsistence for his family, during a summer of famine, out of an eagle's nest, by robbing the eaglets of food, which was plentifully supplied by the old ones. He protracted their assiduity beyond the usual time, by clipping the wings, and retarding the flight of the young ; and very

probably also, as I have known myself, by so tying them as to increase their cries, which is always found to increase the parent's dispatch to procure them provision. It was lucky, however, that the old eagles did not surprise the countryman as he was thus employed, as their resentment might have been dangerous.

It happened some time ago, in the same country, that a peasant resolved to rob the nest of an eagle, that had built in a small island in the beautiful lake of Killarney. He accordingly stripped, and swam in upon the island while the old ones were away; and, robbing the nest of its young, he was preparing to swim back, with the eaglets tied in a string; but while he was yet up to his chin in the water, the old eagles returned, and, missing their young, quickly fell upon the plunderer, and, in spite of all his resistance, dispatched him with their beaks and talons.

In order to extirpate these pernicious birds, there is a law in the Orkney Islands, which entitles any person that kills an eagle to a hen out of every house in the parish in which the plunderer is killed.

The nest of the eagle is usually built in the most inaccessible cliff of the rock, and often shielded from the weather by some jutting crag that hangs over it. Sometimes, however, it is wholly exposed to the winds, as well sideways as above; for the nest is flat, though built with great labour. It is said that the same nest serves the eagle during life; and indeed the pains bestowed in forming it seems to argue as much. One of these was found in the Peak of Derbyshire; which Willoughby thus describes. "It was made of great sticks, resting one end on the edge of a rock, the other on two birch trees. Upon these was a layer of rushes, and over them a layer of heath, and upon the heath rushes again: upon which lay one young one, and an addle egg; and by them a lamb, a hare, and three heath-poults. The nest was about two yards square, and had no hollow in it. The young eagle was of the shape of a gosliawk, of almost the weight of a goose, rough footed, or feathered down to the foot, having a white ring about the tail." Such is the place where the female eagle deposits her eggs; which seldom exceed two at a time in the largest species, and not above three in the smallest. It is said that she hatches them for thirty days: but frequently, even of this

small number of eggs, a part is addled; and it is extremely rare to find three eaglets in the same nest. It is asserted, that as soon as the young ones are somewhat grown, the mother kills the most feeble or the most voracious. If this happens, it must proceed only from the necessities of the parent, who is incapable of providing for their support; and is content to sacrifice a part to the welfare of all.

The plumage of the eaglets is not so strongly marked as when they come to be adult. They are at first white; then inclining to yellow; and at last of a light brown. Age, hunger, long captivity, and diseases, make them whiter. It is said they live above a hundred years; and that they at last die, not of old age, but from the beaks turning inward upon the under mandible, and thus preventing their taking any food. They are equally remarkable, says Mr. Pennant, for their longevity, and for their power of sustaining a long abstinence from food. One of this species, which has now been nine years in the possession of Mr. Owen Holland, of Conway, lived thirty-two years with the gentleman who made him a present of it; but what its age was when the latter received it from Ireland is unknown. The same bird also furnishes a proof of the truth of the other remark; having once, through the neglect of servants, endured hunger for twenty one days, without any sustenance whatever.

Those eagles which are kept tame, are fed with every kind of flesh, whether fresh or corrupting; and when there is a deficiency of that, bread, or other provision, will suffice. It is very dangerous approaching them if not quite tame; and they sometimes send forth a loud piercing lamentable cry, which renders them still more formidable. The eagle drinks but seldom; and perhaps, when at liberty, not at all, as the blood of its prey serves to quench its thirst. The eagle's excrements are always soft and moist, and tinged with that whitish substance which, as was said before, mixes in birds with the urine.

Such are the general characteristics and habitudes of the eagle; however, in some these habitudes differs, as the sea eagle and the osprey live chiefly upon fish, and consequently build their nests on the sea-shore, and by the sides of rivers on the ground among reeds; and often lay three or four eggs, rather less than those of a hen, of a white elliptical form. They catch their prey, which is chiefly fish, by

darting down upon them from above. The Italians compare the violent descent of these birds on their prey to the fall of lead into water; and call them *aquila piombina*, or the leaden eagle.

Nor is the bald eagle, which is an inhabitant of North Carolina, less remarkable for habits peculiar to itself. These birds breed in that country all the year round. When the eaglets are just covered with down, and a sort of white woolly feathers, the female eagle lays again. These eggs are left to be hatched by the warmth of the young ones that continue in the nest; so that the flight of one brood makes room for the next that are but just hatched. These birds fly very heavily; so that they cannot overtake their prey, like others of the same denomination. To remedy this, they often attend a sort of fishing-hawk, which they pursue, and strip the plunderer of its prey. This is the more remarkable, as this hawk flies swifter than they. These eagles also generally attend upon fowlers in the winter; and when any birds are wounded, they are sure to be seized by the eagle, though they may fly from the fowler. This bird will often also steal young pigs, and carry them alive to the nest, which is composed of twigs, sticks, and rubbish; it is large enough to fill the body of a cart; and is commonly full of bones half eaten, and putrid flesh, the stench of which is intolerable.

The distinctive marks of each species are as follow:

The *golden eagle*: of a tawny iron colour; the head and neck of a reddish iron; the tail feathers of a dirty white, marked with cross bands of tawny iron; the legs covered with tawny iron feathers.

The *common eagle*: of a brown colour; the head and upper part of the neck inclining to red; the tail feathers white, blackening at the ends; the outer ones, on each side, of an ash colour; the legs covered with feathers of a reddish brown.

The *bald eagle*: brown; the head, neck, and tail feathers, white; the feathers of the upper part of the leg brown.

The *white eagle*: the whole white.

The *rough-footed eagle*: of a dirty brown; spotted under the wings, and on the legs, with white; the feathers of the tail white at the beginning and the point; the leg-feathers dirty brown, spotted with white.

The *white-tailed eagle*: dirty brown; head white; the stems of the feathers black; the rump inclining to black: the tail feathers, the first half black, the end half white; legs naked.

The *erne*: a dirty iron colour above, an iron mixed with black below; the head and neck ash, mixed with chesnut; the points of the wings blackish; the tail feathers white; the legs naked.

The *black eagle*: blackish; the head and upper neck mixed with red; the tail feathers, the first half white, speckled with black; the other half blackish; the leg feathers dirty white.

The *sea eagle*: inclining to white, mixed with iron brown; belly white, with iron-coloured spots; the covert feathers of the tail whitish; the tail feathers black at the extremity; the upper part of the leg feathers of an iron brown.

The *osprey*: brown above, white below the back of the head white, the outward tail feathers, on the inner side, streaked with white; legs naked.

The *jean le blanc*: above, brownish grey: below, white, spotted with tawny brown; the tail feathers, on the outside and at the extremity, brown; on the inside, white, streaked with brown; legs naked.

The *eagle of Brasil*: blackish brown; ash colour, mixed in the wings; tail feathers white; legs naked.

The *Oroonoko eagle*: with a topping; above, blackish brown; below, white, spotted with black; upper neck yellow; tail feathers brown, with white circles; leg feathers white, spotted with black,

The *crowned African eagle*: with a topping; the tail of an ash colour, streaked on the upper side with black.

The *eagle of Pondicherry*: chesnut colour: the six outward tail feathers black one half.*

* To these we may add, the *bearded eagle of the Alps*, a bird of vast size, measuring sometimes nearly ten feet from the tip of one wing to the tip of the other: below the throat is a beard-like appendage, consisting of very narrow feathers. The legs are clothed with feathers quite down to the toes. One of these Mr. Bruce shot on the high mountains of Abyssinia. "Upon laying hold of his monstrous carcass, (says he) I was not a little surprised at seeing my hands covered and tinged with a yellow powder or dust. Upon turning him on his belly, and examining the feathers of his back, they also produced a dust, the colour

CHAP. III.

THE CONDOR OF AMERICA.

WE might now come to speak of the vulture kind, as they hold the next rank to the eagle; but we are interrupted in our method by the consideration of an enormous bird, whose place is not yet ascertained; as naturalists are in doubt whether to refer it to the eagle tribe, or to that of the vulture. Its great strength, force, and vivacity, might plead for its place among the former; the baldness of its head and neck might be thought to degrade it among the latter. In this uncertainty, it will be enough to describe the bird by the lights we have, and leave future historians to settle its rank in the feathered creation. Indeed, if size and strength, combined with rapidity of flight and rapacity, deserve pre-eminence, no bird can be put in competition with it.

The Condor possesses, in an higher degree than the eagle, all the qualities that render it formidable, not only to the feathered kind, but to beasts, and even to man himself. Acosta, Garcilasso, and Desmarchais, assert, that it is eighteen feet across, the wings extended. The beak is so strong as to pierce the body of a cow; and two of them are able to devour it. They do not even abstain from man himself: but fortunately there are but few of the species; for if they had been plenty, every order of animals must have carried on an unsuccessful war against them. The Indians assert, that they will carry off a deer, or a young calf, in their talons, as eagles would a hare or a rabbit; that their sight is piercing, and their air terrible; that they seldom frequent the forests, as they require a large space for the display of their wings; but that they are found on the sea-shore, and the banks of rivers, whither they descend from their heights of

of the feathers there. The dust was not in small quantities; for upon striking the breast, the yellow powder flew in full greater quantity than from a hair-dresser's powder-puff. What is the reason of this extraordinary provision of nature, it is not in my power to determine. As it is an unusual one, it is probably meant for a defence against the climate, in favour of the birds which live in those almost inaccessible heights of a country doomed, even in its lowest parts, to several months excessive rain "

the mountains. By later accounts we learn, that they come down to the sea-shore only at certain seasons, when their prey happens to fail them upon land; that they then feed upon dead fish, and such other nutritious substances as the sea throws upon the shore. We are assured, however, that their countenance is not so terrible as the old writers have represented it; but that they appear of a milder nature than either the eagle or the vulture.

Condamine has frequently seen them in several parts of the mountains of Quito, and observed them hovering over a flock of sheep; and he thinks they would, at a certain time, have attempted to carry one off, had they not been scared away by the shepherds. Labat acquaints us, that those who have seen this animal, declare that the body is as large as that of a sheep; and that the flesh is tough, and as disagreeable as carrion. The Spaniards themselves seem to dread its depredations; and there have been many instances of its carrying off their children.

Mr. Strong, the master of a ship, as he was sailing along the coasts of Chili, in the thirty-third degree of south latitude, observed a bird sitting upon a high cliff near the shore, which some of the ship's company shot with a leaden bullet, and killed. They were greatly surprised when they beheld its magnitude; for when the wings were extended, they measured thirteen feet from one tip to the other. One of the quills was two feet four inches long; and the barrel, or hollow part, was six inches and three quarters, and an inch and a half in circumference.

We have a still more circumstantial account of this amazing bird, by P. Feuille, the only traveller who has accurately described it: "In the valley of Ilo, in Peru, I discovered a condor perched on a high rock before me: I approached within gun-shot, and fired; but, as my piece was only charged with swan-shot, the lead was not able sufficiently to pierce the bird's feathers. I perceived however, by its manner of flying, that it was wounded; and it was with a good deal of difficulty that it flew to another rock, about five hundred yards distant on the sea-shore. I therefore charged again with ball, and hit the bird under the throat, which made it mine. I accordingly ran up to seize it; but even in death it was terrible, and defended itself upon its back, with its claws extended against me, so that I scarcely

knew how to lay hold of it. Had it not been mortally wounded, I should have found it no easy matter to take it; but I at last dragged it down from the rock, and with the assistance of one of the seamen, I carried it to my tent, to make a coloured drawing.

“The wings of this bird, which I measured very exactly, were twelve feet three inches (English) from tip to tip. The great feathers, that were of a beautiful shining black, were two feet four inches long. The thickness of the beak was proportionable to the rest of the body; the length about four inches; the point hooked downwards, and white at its extremity; and the other part was of a jet black. A short down, of a brown colour, covered the head; the eyes were black, and surrounded with a circle of reddish brown. The feathers on the breast, neck, and wings, were of a light brown; those on the back were rather darker. Its thighs were covered with brown feathers to the knee. The thigh-bone was ten inches long; the leg five inches; the toes were three before, and one behind: that behind was an inch and a half; and the claw with which it was armed was black, and three quarters of an inch. The other claws were in the same proportion; and the legs were covered with black scales, as also the toes; but in these the scales were larger.

“These birds usually keep in the mountains, where they find their prey: they never descend to the sea-shore but in the rainy season; for, as they are very sensible of cold, they go there for greater warmth. Though these mountains are situated in the torrid zone, the cold is often very severe; for a great part of the year they are covered with snow, but particularly in winter.

“The little nourishment which these birds find on the sea-coast, except when the tempest drives in some great fish, obliges the condor to continue there but a short time. They usually come to the coast at the approach of evening; stay there all night, and fly back in the morning.”

It is doubted whether this animal be proper to America only, or whether it may not have been described by the naturalists of other countries. It is supposed that the great bird called the Rock, described by Arabian writers, and so much exaggerated by fable, is but a species of the condor. The great bird of Tarnassar, in the East Indies, that is larger than the eagle, as well as the vulture of Senegal, that carries

off children, are probably no other than the bird we have been describing. Russia, Lapland, and even Switzerland and Germany, are said to have known this animal. A bird of this kind was shot in France; that weighed eighteen pounds, and was said to be eighteen feet across the wings: however, one of the quills was described only as being larger than that of a swan; so that, probably, the breadth of the wings may have been exaggerated, since a bird so large would have the quills more than twice as big as those of a swan. However this be, we are not to regret that it is scarcely ever seen in Europe, as it appears to be one of the most formidable enemies of mankind. In the deserts of Pachomac, where it is chiefly seen, men seldom venture to travel. Those wild regions are very sufficient of themselves to inspire a secret horror: broken precipices—prowling panthers—forests only vocal with the hissing of serpents—and mountains rendered still more terrible by the condor, the only bird that ventures to make its residence in those deserted situations.

CHAP. IV.

OF THE VULTURE AND ITS AFFINITIES.

THE first rank in the description of birds has been given to the eagle; not because it is stronger or larger than the vulture, but because it is more generous and bold. The eagle, unless pressed by famine, will not stoop to carrion; and never devours but what he has earned by his own pursuit. The vulture, on the contrary, is indelicately voracious; and seldom attacks living animals when it can be supplied with the dead. The eagle meets and singly opposes his enemy; the vulture, if it expects resistance, calls in the aid of its kind, and basely overpowers its prey by a cowardly combination. Putrefaction and stench, instead of deterring, only serves to allure them. The vulture seems among birds, what the jackal and hyæna are among quadrupeds, who prey upon carcasses, and root up the dead.

Vultures may be easily distinguished from all those of the eagle kind, by the nakedness of their heads and necks, which

are without feathers, and only covered with a very slight down, or a few scattered hairs. Their eyes are more prominent; those of the eagle being buried more in the socket. Their claws are shorter, and less hooked. The inside of the wing is covered with a thick down, which is different in them from all other birds of prey. Their attitude is not so upright as that of the eagle; and their flight more difficult and heavy.

In this tribe we may range the golden, the ash-coloured, and the brown vulture, which are inhabitants of Europe; the spotted and the black vulture of Egypt; the bearded vulture; the Brazilian vulture, and the king of the vultures, of South America. They all agree in their nature; being equally indolent, yet rapacious and unclean.

The GOLDEN VULTURE seems to be the foremost of the kind; and is, in many things, like the golden eagle, but larger in every proportion. From the end of the beak to that of the tail, it is four feet and a half; and to the claws' end, forty-five inches. The length of the upper mandible is almost seven inches; and the tail twenty-seven in length. The lower part of the neck, breast, and belly, are of a red colour; but on the tail it is more faint, and deeper near the head. The feathers are black on the back; and on the wings and tail of a yellowish brown. Others of the kind differ from this in colour and dimensions; but they are all strongly marked by their naked heads, and beak straight in the beginning, but hooking at the point.

They are still more strongly marked by their nature, which, as has been observed, is cruel, unclean, and indolent. Their sense of smelling, however, is amazingly great; and Nature, for this purpose, has given them two large apertures or nostrils without, and an extensive olfactory membrane within. Their intestines are formed differently from those of the eagle kind; for they partake more of the formation of such birds as live upon grain. They have both a crop and a stomach; which may be regarded as a kind of gizzard, from the extreme thickness of the muscles of which it is composed. In fact, they seem adapted inwardly, not only for being carnivorous, but to eat corn or whatsoever of that kind comes in their way.

This bird, which is common in many parts of Europe, and but two well known on the western continent, is totally

unknown in England. In Egypt, Arabia, and many other kingdoms of Africa and Asia, vultures are found in great abundance. The inside down of their wing is converted into a very warm and comfortable kind of fur, and is commonly sold in the Asiatic markets.

Indeed, in Egypt, this bird seems to be of singular service. There are great flocks of them in the neighbourhood of Grand Cairo, which no person is permitted to destroy. The service they render the inhabitants is the devouring of all the carrion and filth of that great city; which might otherwise tend to corrupt and putrefy the air. They are commonly seen in company with the wild dogs of the country, tearing a carcase very deliberately together. This odd association produced no quarrels; the birds and quadrupeds seem to live amicably, and nothing but harmony subsists between them. The wonder is still the greater, as both are extremely rapacious, and both lean and bony to a very great degree; probably having no great plenty even of the wretched food on which they subsist.

In America they lead a life somewhat similar. Wherever the hunters, who there only pursue beasts for the skins, are found to go, these birds are seen to pursue them. They still keep hovering at a little distance; and when they see the beast flayed and abandoned, they call out to each other, pour down upon the carcase, and, in an instant, pick its bones as bare and clean as if they had been scraped by a knife.

At the Cape of Good Hope, in Africa, they seem to discover a still greater share of dexterity in their methods of carving. "I have," says Kolben, "been often a spectator of the manner in which they have anatomized a dead body: I say anatomized; for no artist in the world could have done it more cleanly. They have a wonderful method of separating the flesh from the bones, and yet leaving the skin quite entire. Upon coming near the carcase, one would not suppose it thus deprived of its internal substance, till he began to examine it more closely; he then finds it, literally speaking, nothing but skin and bone. Their manner of performing the operation is this: they first make an opening in the belly of the animal, from whence they pluck out, and greedily devour, the entrails: then entering into the hollow

which they have made, they separate the flesh from the bones, without ever touching the skin. It often happens that an ox returning home alone to its stall from the plough, lies down by the way: it is then, if the vultures perceive it, that they fall with fury down, and inevitably devour the unfortunate animal. They sometimes attempt them grazing in the fields; and then, to the number of a hundred or more, make their attack all at once and together."

"They are attracted by carrion," says Catesby, "from a very great distance. It is pleasant to behold them, when they are thus eating, and disputing for their prey. An eagle generally presides at these entertainments, and makes them all keep their distance till he has done. They then fall to with an excellent appetite; and their sense of smelling is so exquisite, that the instant a carcase drops, we may see the vultures floating in the air from all quarters, and come sousing on their prey." It is supposed by some, that they eat nothing that has life; but this is only when they are not able; for when they can come at lambs, they shew no mercy; and serpents are their ordinary food. The manner of those birds is to perch themselves, several together, on the old pine and cypress-trees; where they continue all the morning, for several hours, with their wings unfolded: nor are they fearful of danger, but suffer people to approach them very near, particularly when they are eating.

The sloth, the filth, and the voraciousness, of these birds, almost exceeds credibility. In the Brasils, where they are found in great abundance, when they light upon a carcase, which they have liberty to tear at their ease, they so gorge themselves that they are unable to fly; but keep hopping along when they are pursued. At all times, they are a bird of slow flight, and unable readily to raise themselves from the ground; but when they have over-fed, they are then utterly helpless: but they soon get rid of their burden; for they have a method of vomiting up what they have eaten, and then they fly off with greater facility.

It is pleasant, however, to be a spectator of the hostilities between animals that are thus hateful or noxious. Of all creatures, the two most at enmity is the vulture of Brasil and the crocodile. The female of this terrible amphibious creature, which in the rivers of that part of the world grows

to the size of twenty-seven feet, lays its eggs, to the number of one or two hundred, in the sands, on the side of the river, where they are hatched by the heat of the climate. For this purpose, she takes every precaution to hide from all other animals the place where she deposits her burden: in the mean time a number of vultures, or galinassos, as the Spaniards call them, sit silent and unseen in the branches of some neighbouring forest, and view the crocodile's operations, with the pleasing expectation of succeeding plunder. They patiently wait till the crocodile has laid the whole number of her eggs, till she has covered them carefully under the sand, and until she is retired from them to a convenient distance. Then, all together, encouraging each other with cries, they pour down upon the nest, hook up the sand in a moment, lay the eggs bare, and devour the whole brood without remorse. Wretched as is the flesh of these animals, yet men, perhaps when pressed by hunger, have been tempted to taste it. Nothing can be more lean, stringy, nauseous, and unsavoury. It is in vain that, when killed, the rump has been cut off; in vain the body has been washed, and spices used to overpower its prevailing odour; it still smells and tastes of the carrion by which it was nourished, and sends forth a stench that is insupportable.

These birds, at least those of Europe, usually lay two eggs at a time, and produce but once a year. They make their nests in inaccessible cliffs, and in places so remote; that it is rare to find them. Those in our part of the world chiefly reside in the places where they breed, and seldom come down into the plains, except when the snow and ice, in their native retreats, has banished all living animals but themselves: they then come from their heights, and brave the perils they must encounter in a more cultivated region. As carrion is not found, at those seasons, in sufficient quantity, or sufficiently remote from man to sustain them, they prey upon rabbits, hares, serpents, and whatever small game they can overtake or overpower.

Such are the manners of this bird in general; but there is one of the kind, called the King of the Vultures, which, from its extraordinary figure, deserves a separate description. This bird is a native of America, and not of the East Indies, as those who make a trade of shewing birds would induce us

to believe. . This bird is larger than a turkey-cock ; but is chiefly remarkable for the odd formation of the skin of the head and neck, which is bare. This skin arises from the base of the bill, and is of an orange colour ; from whence it stretches on each side to the head ; from thence it proceeds ; like an indented comb, and falls on either side, according to the motion of the head. The eyes are surrounded by a red skin, of a scarlet colour ; and the iris has the colour and lustre of pearl. The head and neck are without feathers, covered with a flesh-coloured skin on the upper part, a fine scarlet behind the head, and a dusky coloured skin before : farther down, behind the head, arises a little tuft of black down, from whence issues and extends beneath the throat, on each side, a wrinkled skin, of a brownish colour, mixed with blue, and reddish behind : below, upon the naked part of the neck, is a collar formed by soft longish feathers, of a deep ash-colour, which surround the neck, and cover the breast before. Into this collar the bird sometimes withdraws its whole neck, and sometimes a part of its head, so that it looks as if it had withdrawn the neck into the body. Those marks are sufficient to distinguish this bird from all others of the vulture kind ; and it cannot be doubted, but that it is the most beautiful of all this deformed family ; however, neither its habits nor instincts vary from the rest of the tribe ; being, like them, a slow cowardly bird, living chiefly upon rats, lizards, and serpents ; and upon carrion or excrement, when it happens to be in the way. The flesh is so bad, that even savages themselves cannot abide it.

CHAP. V.

OF THE FALCON KIND, AND ITS AFFINITIES.

EVERY creature becomes more important in the history of nature in proportion as it is connected with man. In this view, the smallest vegetable, or the most seemingly contemptible insect, is a subject more deserving attention than the most flourishing tree, or the most beautiful of the

feathered creation. In this view, the falcon is a more important animal than the eagle or the vulture; and, though so very diminutive in the comparison, is, notwithstanding, from its connexion with our pleasures, a much more interesting object of curiosity.

The amusement of hawking, indeed, is now pretty much given over in this kingdom; for as every country refines, as its enclosures become higher and closer, those rural sports must consequently decline, in which the game is to be pursued over a long extent of country; and where, while every thing retards the pursuer below, nothing can stop the object of his pursuit above.

Falconry, that is now so much disused among us, was the principal amusement of our ancestors. A person of rank scarcely stirred out without his hawk on his hand; which, in old paintings, is the criterion of nobility. Harold, afterwards king of England, when he went on a most important embassy into Normandy, is drawn in an old bas-relief, as embarking with a bird on his fist, and a dog under his arm. In those days it was thought sufficient for noblemen's sons to wind the horn, and to carry their hawk fair, and leave study and learning to the children of meaner people. Indeed, this diversion was in such high esteem among the great all over Europe, that Frederic, one of the emperors of Germany, thought it not beneath him to write a treatise upon hawking.

The expense which attended this sport was very great: among the old Welch princes, the king's falconer was the fourth officer in the state; but notwithstanding all his honours, he was forbid to take more than three draughts of beer from his horn, lest he should get drunk and neglect his duty. In the reign of James I. Sir Thomas Monson is said to have given a thousand pounds for a cast of hawks; and such was their value in general, that it was made felony in the reign of Edward III. to steal a hawk. To take its eggs, even in a person's own ground, was punishable with imprisonment for a year and a day, together with a fine at the king's pleasure. In the reign of Elizabeth the imprisonment was reduced to three months; but the offender was to lie in prison till he got security for his good behaviour for seven years farther. In the earlier times the art of gunning was but little practised, and the hawk was then valuable,

not only for its affording diversion, but for its procuring delicacies for the table, that could seldom be obtained any other way.

Of many of the ancient falcons used for this purpose, we at this time know only the names, as the exact species are so ill described, that one may be very easily mistaken for another. Of those in use, at present, both here and in other countries, are the gyr-falcon, the falcon, the lanner, the sacre, the hobby, the kestrel, and the merlin. These are called the long-winged hawks, to distinguish them from the goss-hawk, the sparrow-hawk, the kite, and the buzzard, that are of shorter wing, and either too slow, too cowardly, too indolent, or too obstinate, to be serviceable in contributing to the pleasures of the field.

The generous tribe of hawks, as was said, are distinguished from the rest by the peculiar length of their wings, which reach nearly as low as the tail. In these, the first quill of the wing is nearly as long as the second; it terminates in a point, which begins to diminish from about an inch of its extremity. This sufficiently distinguishes the generous breed from that of the baser race of kites, sparrow-hawks and buzzards, in whom the tail is longer than the wings, and the first feather of the wing is rounded at the extremity. They differ also in the latter having the fourth feather of the wing the longest; in the generous race it is always the second.

This generous race, which have been taken into the service of man, are endowed with natural powers that the other kinds are not possessed of. From the length of their wings, they are swifter to pursue their game; from a confidence in this swiftness, they are bolder to attack it; and from an innate generosity, they have an attachment to their feeder, and, consequently, a docility which the baser kinds are strangers to.

The gyr-falcon leads in this bold train. He exceeds all other falcons in the largeness of his size, for he approaches nearly to the magnitude of the eagle. The top of the head is flat and of an ash-colour, with a strong, thick, short, and blue beak. The feathers of the back and wings are marked with black spots, in the shape of a heart; he is a courageous and fierce bird, nor fears even the eagle himself; but he chiefly flies at the stork, the heron, and the crane. He is

mostly found in the colder regions of the north, but loses neither his strength nor his courage when brought into the milder climates.

The falcon, properly so called, is the second in magnitude and fame. There are some varieties in this bird; but there seem to be only two that claim distinction; the falcon-gentil and the peregrine-falcon; both are much less than the gyr, and somewhat about the size of a raven. They differ but slightly, and perhaps only from the different states they were in when brought into captivity. Those differences are easier known by experience than taught by description. The falcon-gentil moults in March, and often sooner; the peregrine-falcon does not moult till the middle of August. The peregrine is stronger in the shoulder, has a larger eye, and yet more sunk in the head; his beak is stronger, his legs longer, and the toes better divided.

Next in size to these is the lanner, a bird now very little known in Europe; then follows the sacre, the legs of which are of a bluish colour, and serve to distinguish that bird; to them succeeds the hobby, used for smaller game, for daring larks, and stooping at quails. The kestrel was trained for the same purposes; and lastly the merlin; which, though the smallest of all the hawk or falcon kind, and not much larger than a thrush, yet displays a degree of courage that renders him formidable even to birds ten times his size. He has often been known to kill a partridge or a quail at a single pounce from above.

Some of the other species of sluggish birds were now and then trained to this sport, but it was when no better could be obtained; but these just described were only considered as birds of the nobler races. Their courage in general was such, that no bird, not very much above their own size, could terrify them; their swiftness so great, that scarcely any bird could escape them; and their docility so remarkable, that they obeyed not only the commands, but the signs of their master. They remained quietly perched upon his hand till their game was flushed, or else kept hovering round his head, without ever leaving him but when he gave permission. The common falcon is a bird of such spirit, that, like a conqueror in a country, he keeps all birds in awe and in subjection to his prowess. Where he is seen flying wild, as I often had an opportunity of observing, the birds of every

kind, that seemed entirely to disregard the kite or the sparrow-hawk, fly with screams at his most distant appearance. Long before I could see the falcon, I have seen them with the utmost signs of terror endeavouring to avoid him; and, like the peasants of a country before a victorious army, every one of them attempting to shift for himself. Even the young falcons, though their spirit be depressed by captivity, will, when brought out into the field, venture to fly at barnacles and wild geese, till, being soundly brushed and beaten by those strong birds, they learn their error, and desist from meddling with such unwieldy game for the future.

To train up the hawk to this kind of obedience, so as to hunt for his master, and bring him the game he shall kill, requires no small degree of skill and assiduity. Numberless treatises have been written upon this subject which are now, with the sport itself, almost utterly forgotten: indeed, except to a few, they seem utterly unintelligible; for the falconers had a language peculiar to themselves, in which they conversed and wrote, and took a kind of professional pride in using no other. A modern reader, I suppose, would be little edified by one of the instructions, for instance, which we find in Willoughby, when he bids us “draw our falcon “out of the mew twenty days before we enseam her. If “she truss and carry, the remedy is, to cosse her talons, her “powse, and petty single.”

But, as it certainly makes a part of natural history to show how much the nature of birds can be wrought upon by harsh or kind treatment, I will just take leave to give a short account of the manner of training a hawk, divested of those cant words with which men of art have thought proper to obscure their profession.

In order to train up a falcon, the master begins by clapping straps upon his legs, which are called *jesses*, to which there is fastened a ring with the owner's name, by which, in case he should be lost, the finder may know where to bring him back. To these also are added little bells, which serve to mark the place where he is, if lost in the chase. He is always carried on the fist; and is obliged to keep without sleeping. If he be stubborn, and attempts to bite, his head is plunged into water. Thus, by hunger, watching, and fatigue, he is constrained to submit to

having his head covered by a hood or cowl, which covers his eyes. This troublesome employment continues often for three days and nights without ceasing. It rarely happens but at the end of this his necessities and the privation of light make him lose all idea of liberty, and bring down his natural wildness. His master judges of his being tamed when he permits his head to be covered without resistance, and when uncovered he seizes the meat before him contentedly. The repetition of these lessons by degrees ensures success. His wants being the chief principle of his dependence, it is endeavoured to increase his appetite by giving him little balls of flannel, which he greedily swallows. Having thus excited the appetite, care is taken to satisfy it; and thus gratitude attaches the bird to the man who but just before had been his tormentor.

When the first lessons have succeeded, and the bird shews signs of docility, he is carried out upon some green, the head is uncovered, and, by flattering him with food at different times, he is taught to jump on the fist, and to continue there. When confirmed in this habit, it is then thought time to make him acquainted with the lure. This lure is only a thing stuffed like the bird the falcon is designed to pursue, such as a heron, a pigeon, or a quail, and on this lure they always take care to give him his food. It is quite necessary that the bird should not only be acquainted with this, but fond of it, and delicate in his food when shewn it. When the falcon has flown upon this, and tasted the first morsel, some falconers then take it away; but by this there is a danger of daunting the bird; and the surest method is, when he flies to seize it, to let him feed at large, and this serves as a recompence for his docility. The use of this lure is to flatter him back when he has flown in the air, which it sometimes fails to do; and it is always requisite to assist it by the voice and the signs of the master. When these lessons have been long repeated, it is then necessary to study the character of the bird; to speak frequently to him, if he be inattentive to the voice; to stint in his food such as do not come kindly or readily to the lure; to keep waking him, if he be not sufficiently familiar; and to cover him frequently with the hood, if he fears darkness. When the familiarity and the docility of the bird are sufficiently confirmed on the green, he is then carried into the open fields, but still kept

fast by a string, which is about twenty yards long. He is then uncovered as before; and the falconer, calling him at some paces distance, shews him the lure. When he flies upon it, he is permitted to take a large morsel of the food which is tied to it. The next day the lure is shewn him at a greater distance, till he comes at last to fly to it at the utmost length of his string. He is then to be shewn the game itself alive, but disabled or tame, which he is designed to pursue. After having seized this several times, with his string, he is then left entirely at liberty, and carried into the field for the purpose of pursuing that which is wild. At that he flies with avidity; and when he has seized it, or killed it, he is brought back by the voice and the lure.

By this method of instruction, an hawk may be taught to fly at any game whatsoever; but falconers have chiefly confined their pursuit only to such animals as yield them profit by the capture, or pleasure in the pursuit. The hare, the partridge, and the quail, repay the trouble of taking them; but the most delightful sport is the falcon's pursuit of the heron, the kite, or the wood-lark. Instead of flying directly forward, as some other birds do, these, when they see themselves threatened by the approach of the hawk, immediately take to the skies. They fly almost perpendicularly upward, while their ardent pursuer keeps pace with their flight, and tries to rise above them. Thus both diminish by degrees from the gazing spectator below, till they are quite lost in the clouds; but they are soon seen descending, struggling together, and using every effort on both sides; the one of rapacious insult, the other of desperate defence. The unequal combat is soon at an end; the falcon comes off victorious, and the other, killed or disabled, is made a prey either to the bird or the sportsman.

As for other birds, they are not so much pursued, as they generally fly straight forward, by which the sportsman loses sight of the chase, and, what is still worse, runs a chance of losing his falcon also. The pursuit of the lark by a couple of merlins is considered, to him only who regards the sagacity of the chase, as one of the most delightful spectacles this exercise can afford. The amusement is to see one of the merlins climbing to get the ascendant of the lark, while the other, lying low for the best advantage, waits the success of its companion's efforts; thus while the one

stoops to strike its prey, the other seizes it at its coming down.

Such are the natural and acquired habits of these birds, which, of all others, have the greatest strength and courage relative to their size. While the kite or the goss-hawk approach their prey sideways, these dart perpendicularly, in their wild state, upon their game, and devour it on the spot, or carry it off, if not too large for their power of flying. They are sometimes seen descending perpendicularly from the clouds, from an amazing height, and darting down on their prey with inevitable swiftness and destruction.

The more ignoble race of birds make up by cunning and assiduity what these claim by force and celerity. Being less courageous, they are more patient; and, having less swiftness, they are better skilled at taking their prey by surprise. The kite, that may be distinguished from all the rest of this tribe by his forked tail and his slow floating motion, seems almost for ever upon the wing. He appears to rest himself upon the bosom of the air, and not to make the smallest effort in flying. He lives only upon accidental carnage, as almost every bird in the air is able to make good its retreat against him. He may be, therefore, considered as an insidious thief, who only prowls about, and when he finds a small bird wounded, or a young chicken strayed too far from the mother, instantly seizes the hour of calamity, and, like a famished glutton, is sure to shew no mercy. His hunger, indeed, often urges him to acts of seeming desperation. I have seen one of them fly round and round for a while to mark a clutch of chickens, and then on a sudden dart like lightning upon the unresisting little animal, and carry it off, the hen in vain crying out, and the boys hooting and casting stones to scare it from its plunder. For this reason, of all birds, the kite is the good housewife's greatest tormentor and aversion.

Of all obscene birds, the kite is the best known; but the buzzard among us is the most plenty. He is a sluggish inactive bird, and often remains perched whole days together upon the same bough. He is rather an assassin than a pursuer; and lives more upon frogs, mice, and insects, which he can easily seize, than upon birds which he is obliged to follow. He lives in summer by robbing the nests of other birds, and sucking their eggs, and more

resembles the owl kind in his countenance than any other rapacious bird of day. His figure implies the stupidity of his disposition ; and so little is he capable of instruction from man, that it is common to a proverb to call one who cannot be taught, or continues obstinately ignorant, a *buzzard*. The honey-buzzard, the moor-buzzard, and the hen-harrier, are all of this stupid tribe, and differ chiefly in their size, growing less in the order I have named them. The goss-hawk and sparrow-hawk are what Mr. Willoughby calls short-winged birds, and consequently unfit for training, however injurious they may be to the pigeon-house or the sportsman. They have been indeed taught to fly at game ; but little is to be obtained from their efforts, being difficult of instruction, and capricious in their obedience. It has been lately asserted, however, by one whose authority is respectable, that the sparrow-hawk is the boldest and the best of all others for the pleasure of the chase.*

CHAP. VI.

THE BUTCHER BIRD.

BEFORE I conclude this short history of rapacious birds that prey by day, I must take leave to describe a tribe of smaller birds, that seem from their size rather to be classed

* The Secretary Falcon, an inhabitant of Asia and Africa, is a curious bird, for whose natural history we are chiefly indebted to the indefatigable labours of M. le Vaillant. Its body, when standing erect, is not much unlike the crane ; but its head, bill, and claws, are precisely those of the falcon. The general colour of the plumage is a bluish-ash ; the tips of the wings, the thighs, and the vent, being blackish : the tail is black near the end, but the very tip is white : the legs are long, so that it measures, when standing erect, full three feet from the top of the head to the ground. On the back of the head are several long dark-coloured feathers, hanging down behind, and which it can erect at pleasure. This crest has induced the Dutch at the Cape to give it the name of the Secretary, from the resemblance they fancy it has to the pen of a writer, when in the time of leisure it is stuck behind the ear.

In the craw of one of this kind, M. le Vaillant found eleven tolerably large lizards, three serpents as long as his arm, eleven small tortoises of about two inches in diameter, and a number of locusts and other insects, some of which were so entire that he added them to his collection.

with the harmless order of the sparrow kind ; but that from their crooked beak, courage, and appetites for slaughter, certainly deserve a place here. The lesser butcher-bird is not much above the size of a lark ; that of the smallest species is not so big as a sparrow ; yet, diminutive as these little animals are, they make themselves formidable to birds of four times their dimensions.

The greater butcher-bird is about as large as a thrush ; its bill is black, an inch long and hooked at the end. This mark, together with its carnivorous appetites, ranks it among the rapacious birds ; at the same time that its legs and feet, which are slender, and its toes, formed somewhat differently from the former, would seem to make it the shade between such birds as live wholly upon flesh, and such as live chiefly upon insects and grain.

Indeed, its habits seem entirely to correspond with its conformation, as it is found to live as well upon flesh as upon insects, and thus to partake, in some measure, of a double nature. However, its appetite for flesh is the most prevalent ; and it never takes up with the former when it can obtain the latter. This bird, therefore, leads a life of continual combat and opposition. As from its size it does not much terrify the smaller birds of the forest, so it very frequently meets birds willing to try its strength, and it never declines the engagement.

It is wonderful to see with what intrepidity this little creature goes to war with the pie, the crow, and the kestrel, all above four times bigger than itself, and that sometimes prey upon flesh in the same manner. It not only fights upon the defensive, but often comes to the attack, and always with advantage, particularly when the male and female unite to protect their young, and to drive away the more powerful birds of rapine. At that season, they do not wait the approach of their invader ; it is sufficient that they see him preparing for the assault at a distance. It is then that they sally forth with loud cries, wound him on every side, and drive him off with such fury, that he seldom ventures to return to the charge. In these kinds of disputes, they generally come off with the victory ; though it sometimes happens that they fall to the ground with the bird they have so fiercely fixed upon, and the combat ends with the destruction of the assailant as well as the defender.

For this reason, the most redoubtable birds of prey respect them; while the kite, the buzzard, and the crow, seem rather to fear than seek the engagement. Nothing in nature better displays the respect paid to the claims of courage than to see this little bird, apparently so contemptible, fly in company with the lanner, the falcon, and all the tyrants of the air, without fearing their power, or avoiding their resentment.

As for small birds, they are its usual food. It seizes them by the throat, and strangles them in an instant. When it has thus killed the bird or insect, it is asserted by the best authority, that it fixes them upon some neighbouring thorn, and, when thus spitted, pulls them to pieces with its bill. It is supposed, that as Nature has not given this bird strength sufficient to tear their prey to pieces with its feet, as the hawks do, it is obliged to have recourse to this extraordinary expedient.

During summer, such of them as constantly reside here, for the smaller red butcher-bird migrates, remain among the mountainous parts of the country: but in winter they descend into the plains, and nearer human habitations. The larger kind make their nests on the highest trees, while the lesser build in bushes in the fields and hedge-rows. They both lay about six eggs, of a white colour, but encircled at the bigger end with a ring of brownish red. The nest on the outside is composed of white moss, interwoven with long grass; within it is well lined with wool, and is usually fixed among the forking branches of a tree. The female feeds her young with caterpillars and other insects while very young; but soon after accustoms them to flesh, which the male procures with surprising industry. Their nature also is very different from other birds of prey in their parental care; for, so far from driving out their young from the nest to shift for themselves, they keep them with care; and even when adult they do not forsake them, but the whole brood live in one family together. Each family lives apart, and is generally composed of the male, female, and five or six young ones; these all maintain peace and subordination among each other, and hunt in concert. Upon the returning season of courtship, this union is at an end, the family parts for ever, each to establish a little household of its own. It is easy to distinguish these birds at a distance, not only from their

going in companies, but also from their manner of flying, which is always up and down, seldom direct or sideways

Of these birds there are three or four different kinds; but the greater ash-coloured butcher-bird is the least known among us. The red-backed butcher-bird migrates in autumn, and does not return till spring. The woodchat resembles the former, except in the colour of the back, which is brown, and not red as in the other. There is still another, less than either of the former, found in the marshes near London. This too is a bird of prey, although not much bigger than a titmouse; an evident proof that an animal's courage or rapacity does not depend upon its size. Of foreign birds of this kind there are several; but as we know little of their manner of living we will not, instead of history, substitute mere description. In fact, the colours of a bird, which is all we know of them, would afford a reader but small entertainment in the enumeration. Nothing can be more easy than to fill volumes with the different shades of a bird's plumage; but these accounts are written with more pleasure than they are read; and a single glance of a good plate or a picture imprints a juster idea than a volume could convey.*

CHAP. VII.

OF RAPACIOUS BIRDS OF THE OWL KIND, THAT PREY BY NIGHT.

HITHERTO we have been describing a tribe of animals who, though plunderers among their fellows of the air, yet

* The great Butcher-bird of America makes use of a curious stratagem to decoy and seize its prey. A gentleman accidentally observing that several grasshoppers were stuck upon some sharp thorns, inquired of a person, who lived close by, the cause of this appearance; and was informed, that they were placed there by this bird, which is there called the nine-killer, from the supposition that nine are always stuck up in succession. On further inquiry, he was led to suppose, that this was an instinctive stratagem, adopted for the purpose of tempting the smaller birds into a situation where he could easily dart out upon them and seize them.

wage war boldly in the face of day. We now come to a race equally cruel and rapacious; but who add to their savage disposition, the further reproach of treachery, and carry on all their depredations by night.

All birds of the owl kind may be considered as nocturnal robbers, who, unfitted for taking their prey while it is light, surprise it at those hours of rest, when the tribes of nature are in the least expectation of an enemy. Thus there seems no link in Nature's chain broken: nowhere a dead inactive repose; but every place, every season, every hour of the day and night, is bustling with life, and furnishing instances of industry, self-defence, and invasion.

All birds of the owl kind have one common mark by which they are distinguished from others; their eyes are formed for seeing better in the dusk than in the broad glare of sun-shine. As in the eyes of tigers and cats, that are formed for a life of nocturnal depredation, there is a quality in the retina that takes in the rays of light so copiously as to permit their seeing in places almost quite dark; so in these birds there is the same conformation of that organ, and though, like us, they cannot see in a total exclusion of light, yet they are sufficiently quick-sighted, at times when we remain in total obscurity. In the eyes of all animals, Nature hath made a complete provision, either to shut out too much light, or to admit a sufficiency, by the contraction and dilatation of the pupil. In these birds the pupil is capable of opening very wide, or shutting very close: by contracting the pupil, the brighter light of the day, which would act too powerfully upon the sensibility of the retina, is excluded; by dilating the pupil, the animal takes in the more faint rays of the night, and thereby is enabled to spy its prey, and catch it with greater facility in the dark. Besides this, there is an irradiation on the back of the eye, and the very iris itself has a faculty of reflecting the rays of light, so as to assist vision in the gloomy places where these birds are found to frequent.

But though owls are dazzled by too bright a day-light, yet they do not see best in the darkest nights, as some have been apt to imagine. It is in the dusk of the evening, or the gray of the morning, that they are best fitted for seeing, at those seasons when there is neither too much

light, nor too little. It is then that they issue from their retreats, to hunt or to surprise their prey, which is usually attended with great success: it is then that they find all other birds asleep, or preparing for repose, and they have only to seize the most unguarded.

The nights when the moon shines are the times of their most successful plunder; for when it is wholly dark, they are less qualified for seeing and pursuing their prey: except, therefore, by moonlight, they contract the hours of their chace; and if they come out at the approach of dusk in the evening, they return before it is totally dark, and then rise by twilight the next morning to pursue their game, and to return in like manner, before the broad day-light begins to dazzle them with its splendour.

Yet the faculty of seeing in the night, or of being entirely dazzled by day, is not alike in every species of these nocturnal birds: some see by night better than others; and some are so little dazzled by day-light, that they perceive their enemies, and avoid them. The common White or Barn Owl, for instance, sees with such exquisite acuteness in the dark, that though the barn has been shut at night, and the light thus totally excluded, yet it perceives the smallest mouse that peeps from its hole: on the contrary, the Brown Horned Owl is often seen to prowl along the hedges by day, like the sparrow-hawk; and sometimes with good success.

All birds of the owl kind may be divided into two sorts; those that have horns, and those without. These horns are nothing more than two or three feathers that stand upon each side of the head over the ear, and give this animal a kind of horned appearance. Of the horned kind is, the Great Horned Owl, which at first view appears as large as an eagle. When he comes to be observed more closely, however, he will be found much less. His legs, body, wings, and tail, are shorter; his head much larger and thicker: his horns are composed of feathers that rise above two inches and a half high, and which he can erect or depress at pleasure: his eyes are large and transparent, encircled with an orange-coloured iris: his ears are large and deep, and it would appear that no animal was possessed with a more exquisite sense of hearing: his plumage is of a reddish brown, marked on the back

with black and yellow spots, and yellow only upon the belly.

Next to this is the Common Horned Owl, of a much smaller size than the former, and with horns much shorter. As the great owl was five feet from the tip of one wing to the other, this is but three. The horns are but about an inch long, and consist of six feathers, variegated with black and yellow.

There is still a smaller kind of the horned owl, which is not much larger than a blackbird; and whose horns are remarkably short, being composed but of one feather, and that not above half an inch high.

To these succeeds the tribe without horns. The HOWLET, which is the largest of this kind, with dusky plumes and black eyes; the SCREECH OWL, of a smaller size, with blue eyes, and plumage of an iron gray; the WHITE OWL, about as large as the former, with yellow eyes and whitish plumage; the GREAT BROWN OWL, less than the former, with brown plumage and a brown beak; and, lastly, the LITTLE BROWN OWL, with yellowish coloured eyes, and an orange-coloured bill. To this catalogue might be added others of foreign denominations, which differ but little from our own, if we except the HAREFANG, or GREAT HUDSON'S BAY OWL of Edwards, which is the largest of all the nocturnal tribe, and as white as the snows of the country of which he is a native.

All this tribe of animals, however they may differ in their size and plumage, agree in their general characteristics of preying by night, and having their eyes formed for nocturnal vision. Their bodies are strong and muscular; their feet and claws made for tearing their prey; and their stomachs for digesting it. It must be remarked, however, that the digestion of all birds that live upon mice, lizards, or such like food, is not very perfect; for though they swallow them whole, yet they are always seen some time after to disgorge the skin and bones, rolled up in a pellet, as being indigestible.

In proportion as each of these animals bears the daylight best, he sets forward earlier in the evening in pursuit of his prey. The great horned owl is the foremost in leaving his retreat; and ventures into the woods and thickets very soon in the evening. The horned, and the brown owl,

are later in their excursions : but the barn-owl seems to see best in profound darkness, and seldom leaves his hiding-place till midnight.

As they are incapable of supporting the light of the day, or at least of then seeing and readily avoiding their danger, they keep all this time concealed in some obscure retreat, suited to their gloomy appetites, and there continue in solitude and silence. The cavern of a rock, the darkest part of a hollow tree, the battlements of a ruined and unfrequented castle, some obscure hole in a farmer's out-house, are the places where they are usually found : if they be seen out of these retreats in the day-time, they may be considered as having lost their way ; as having by some accident been thrown into the midst of their enemies, and surrounded with danger.

Having spent the day in their retreat, at the approach of evening they sally forth, and skim rapidly up and down along the hedges. The barn-owl, indeed, who lives chiefly upon mice, is contented to be more stationary : he takes his residence upon some shock of corn, or the point of some old house ; and there watches in the dark, with the utmost perspicacity and perseverance.

Nor are these birds by any means silent ; they all have an hideous note ; which, while pursuing their prey, is seldom heard ; but may be considered rather as a call to courtship. There is something always terrifying in this call, which is often heard in the silence of midnight, and breaks the general pause with a horrid variation. It is different in all ; but in each it is alarming and disagreeable. Father Kircher, who has set the voices of birds to music, has given all the tones of the owl note, which make a most tremendous melody. Indeed, the prejudices of mankind are united with their sensations to make the cry of the owl disagreeable. The screech-owl's voice was always considered among the people as a presage of some sad calamity that was soon to ensue.

They seldom, however, are heard while they are preying ; that important pursuit is always attended with silence, as it is by no means their intention to disturb or forewarn those little animals they wish to surprise. When their pursuit has been successful, they soon return to their solitude, or to their young, if that be the season.

If, however, they find but little game, they continue their quest still longer; and it sometimes happens that, obeying the dictates of appetite rather than of prudence, they pursue so long that broad day breaks in upon them, and leaves them dazzled, bewildered, and at a distance from home.

In this distress they are obliged to take shelter in the first tree or hedge that offers, there to continue concealed all day, till the returning darkness once more supplies them with a better plan of the country. But it too often happens that, with all their precautions to conceal themselves, they are spied out by the other birds of the place, and are sure to receive no mercy. The blackbird, the thrush, the jay, the bunting, and the red-breast, all come in file, and employ their little arts of insult and abuse. The smallest, the feeblest, and the most contemptible of this unfortunate bird's enemies, are then the foremost to injure and torment him. They increase their cries and turbulence round him, flap him with their wings, and are ready to shew their courage to be great, as they are sensible that their danger is but small. The unfortunate owl, not knowing where to attack or where to fly, patiently sits and suffers all their insults. Astonished and dizzy, he only replies to their mockeries by awkward and ridiculous gestures, by turning his head and rolling his eyes with an air of stupidity. It is enough that an owl appears by day, to set the whole grove into a kind of uproar. Either the aversion all the small birds have to this animal, or the consciousness of their own security, makes them pursue him without ceasing, while they encourage each other by their mutual cries to lend assistance in this laudable undertaking.

It sometimes happens, however, that the little birds pursue their insults with the same imprudent zeal with which the owl himself had pursued his depredations. They hunt him the whole day until evening returns; which restoring him his faculties of sight once more, he makes the foremost of his pursuers pay dear for their former sport. Nor is man always an unconcerned spectator here. The bird-catchers have got an art of counterfeiting the cry of the owl exactly; and having before limed the branches of a hedge, they sit unseen, and give the call. At this, all the

little birds flock to the place where they expect to find their well-known enemy; but instead of finding their stupid antagonist, they are stuck fast to the hedge themselves. This sport must be put in practice an hour before night-fall, in order to be successful; for if it is put off till later, those birds which but a few minutes sooner came to provoke their enemy, will then fly from him with as much terror as they just before shewed insolence.

It is not unpleasant to see one stupid bird made, in some sort, a decoy to deceive another. The great horned owl is sometimes made use of for this purpose to lure the kite, when falconers desire to catch him for the purposes of training the falcon. Upon this occasion they clap the tail of a fox to the great owl, to render his figure extraordinary; in which trim he sails slowly along, flying low, which is his usual manner. The kite, either curious to observe this odd kind of animal, or perhaps inquisitive to see whether it may not be proper for food, flies after, and comes nearer and nearer. In this manner he continues to hover, and sometimes to descend, till the falconer setting a strong-winged hawk against him, seizes him for the purpose of training his young ones at home.

The usual place where the great horned owl breeds is in the cavern of a rock, the hollow of a tree, or the turret of some ruined castle. Its nest is near three feet in diameter, and composed of sticks, bound together by the fibrous roots of trees, and lined with leaves on the inside. It lays about three eggs, which are larger than those of a hen, and of a colour somewhat resembling the bird itself. The young ones are very voracious, and the parents not less expert at satisfying the call of hunger. The lesser owl of this kind never makes a nest for itself, but always takes up with the old nest of some other bird, which it has often been forced to abandon. It lays four or five eggs; and the young are all white at first, but change colour in about a fortnight. The other owls in general build near the place where they chiefly prey; that which feeds upon birds, in some neighbouring grove; that which preys chiefly upon mice, near some farmer's yard, where the proprietor of the place takes care to give it perfect security. In fact, whatever mischief one species of owl may do in the woods, the barn-owl makes a sufficient recompense for, by being

equally active in destroying mice nearer home ; so that a single owl is said to be more serviceable than half a dozen cats, in ridding the barn of its domestic vermin. " In the year 1580," says an old writer, " at Hallontide, an army of mice so over-run the marshes near Southminster, that they eat up the grass to the very roots. But at length a great number of strange painted owls came and devoured all the mice." The like happened again in Essex about sixty years after.

To conclude our account of these birds, they are all very shy of man, and extremely indocile and difficult to be tamed. The white owl in particular, as Mr. Buffon asserts, cannot be made to live in captivity ; I suppose he means, if it be taken when old. " They live," says he, " ten or twelve days in the aviary where they are shut up ; but they refuse all kind of nourishment, and at last die of hunger. By day they remain without moving upon the floor of the aviary ; in the evening they mount on the highest perch, where they continue to make a noise like a man snoring with his mouth open. This seems designed as a call for their old companions without ; and, in fact, I have seen several others come to the call, and perch upon the roof of the aviary, where they made the same kind of hissing, and soon after permitted themselves to be taken in a net."*

* Mr. Constedt, in the Transactions of the Philosophical Society of Stockholm, gives a pleasing instance of their attachment to their young. A young owl having quitted the nest, in the month of July, was caught by his servants, and shut up in a large hen-coop. The next morning a young partridge was found lying dead before the door of the coop. For fourteen successive nights the same circumstance was repeated ; plainly proving that it had been brought there by the old owls as a provision for the young one. Till the month of August, various articles of food, as young partridges, moor-fowl, pieces of lamb, and other substances, were regularly brought ; after which time the parents discontinued their attendance.

BOOK III.

OF BIRDS OF THE POULTRY KIND.

CHAP. I.

OF BIRDS OF THE POULTRY KIND IN GENERAL.

FROM the most rapacious and noxious tribe of birds, we make a transition to those which of all others are the most harmless; and the most serviceable to man. He may force the rapacious tribes to assist his pleasures in the field, or induce the smaller warblers to delight him with their singing; but it is from the poultry kind that he derives the most solid advantages, as they not only make a considerable addition to the necessaries of life, but furnish out the greatest delicacies to every entertainment.

Almost, if not all, the domestic birds of the poultry kind that we maintain in our yards, are of foreign extraction; but there are others to be ranked in this class that are as yet in a state of nature; and perhaps only wait till they become sufficiently scarce to be taken under the care of man, to multiply their propagation. It will appear remarkable enough, if we consider how much the tame poultry which we have imported from distant climates has increased, and how much those wild birds of the poultry kind that have never yet been taken into keeping have been diminished and destroyed. They are all thinned; and many of the species, especially in the more cultivated and populous parts of the kingdom, are utterly unseen.

Under birds of the poultry kind I rank all those that have white flesh, and, comparatively to their head and limbs, have bulky bodies. They are furnished with short strong

bills for picking up grain, which is their chief and often their only sustenance. Their wings are short and concave; for which reason they are not able to fly far. They lay a great many eggs; and, as they lead their young abroad the very day they are hatched, in quest of food, which they are shewn by the mother, and which they pick up for themselves, they generally make their nests on the ground. The toes of all these are united by a membrane as far as the first articulation, and then are divided as in those of the former class.

Under this class we may therefore rank the common cock, the peacock, the turkey, the pintada or Guinea-hen, the pheasant, the bustard, the grous, the partridge, and the quail. These all bear a strong similitude to each other, being equally granivorous, fleshy, and delicate to the palate. These are among birds what beasts of pasture are among quadrupeds, peaceable tenants of the field, and shunning the thicker parts of the forest, that abound with numerous animals, who carry on unceasing hostilities against them.

As Nature has formed the rapacious class for war, so she seems equally to have fitted these for peace, rest, and society. Their wings are but short, so that they are ill formed for wandering from one region to another; their bills are also short, and incapable of annoying their opposers; their legs are strong, indeed, but their toes are made for scratching up their food, and not for holding or tearing it. These are sufficient indications of their harmless nature; while their bodies, which are fat and fleshy, render them unwieldy travellers, and incapable of straying far from each other.

Accordingly we find them chiefly in society; they live together; and though they may have their disputes, like all other animals, upon some occasions, yet when kept in the same district, or fed in the same yard, they learn the arts of subordination; and, in proportion as each knows his strength, he seldom tries a second time the combat where he has once been worsted.

In this manner, all of this kind seem to lead an indolent voluptuous life; as they are furnished internally with a very strong stomach, commonly called a gizzard, so their voraciousness scarcely knows any bounds. If kept in close

captivity, and separated from all their former companions, they still have the pleasure of eating left; and they soon grow fat and unwieldy in their prison. To say this more simply, many of the wilder species of birds, when cooped or caged, pine away, grow gloomy, and some refuse all sustenance whatever; none, except those of the poultry kind, grow fat, who seem to lose all remembrance of their former liberty, satisfied with indolence and plenty.

The poultry kind may be considered as sensual epicures, solely governed by their appetites. The indulgence of these seems to influence their other habits, and destroys among them that connubial fidelity for which most other kinds are remarkable. The eagle and the falcon, how fierce soever to other animals, are yet gentle and true to each other; their connections, when once formed, continue till death; and the male and female, in every exigence, and every duty, lend faithful assistance to each other. They assist each other in the production of their young, in providing for them when produced; and even then, though they drive them forth to fight their own battles, yet the old ones still retain their former affection to each other, and seldom part far asunder.

But it is very different with this luxurious class I am now describing. Their courtship is but short, and their congress fortuitous. The male takes no heed of his offspring; and satisfied with the pleasure of getting, leaves to the female all the care of providing for posterity. Wild and irregular in his appetites, he ranges from one to another; and claims every female which he is strong enough to keep from his fellows. Though timorous when opposed to birds of prey, yet he is incredibly bold among those of his own kind; and but to see a male of his own species is sufficient to produce a combat. As his desires extend to all, every creature becomes his enemy that pretends to be his rival.

The female, equally without fidelity or attachment, yields to the most powerful. She stands by, a quiet meretricious spectator of their fury, ready to reward the conqueror with every compliance. She takes upon herself all the labour of hatching and bringing up her young, and chooses a place for hatching as remote as possible from the cock. Indeed she gives herself very little trouble in making a nest, as her young ones are to leave it the instant they part from the shell.

She is equally unassisted in providing for her young, that are not fed with meat put into their mouths, as in other classes of the feathered kind, but peek their food, and, forsaking their nests, run here and there, following the parent wherever it is to be found. She leads them forward where they are likely to have the greatest quantity of grain, and takes care to shew, by pecking, the sort proper for them to seek for. Though at other times voracious, she is then abstemious to an extreme degree; and intent only on providing for, and shewing her young elutch their food, she scarcely takes any nourishment herself. Her parental pride seems to overpower every other appetite; but that decreases in proportion as her young ones are more able to provide for themselves, and then all her voracious habits return.

Among the other habits peculiar to this class of birds is that of dusting themselves. They lie flat in some dusty place, and with their wings and feet raise and scatter the dust over their whole body. What may be their reason for thus doing, it is not easy to explain. Perhaps the heat of their bodies is such, that they require this powder to be interposed between their feathers, to keep them from lying too close together, and thus increasing that heat with which they are incommoded.

CHAP. II.

OF THE COCK.

ALL birds taken under the protection of man lose a part of their natural figure, and are altered, not only in their habits, but their very form. Climate, food, and captivity, are three very powerful agents in producing these alterations; and those birds that have longest felt their influence under human direction, are the most likely to have the greatest variety in their figures, their plumage, and their dispositions.

Of all other birds, the cock seems to be the oldest companion of mankind, to have been first reclaimed from the forest, and taken to supply the accidental failure of the luxuries or necessities of life. As he is thus longest under the care of man, so of all others perhaps he exhibits the greatest number of varieties, there being scarce two birds of this

species that exactly resemble each other in plumage and form. The tail, which makes such a beautiful figure in the generality of these birds, is yet found entirely wanting in others; and not only the tail, but the rump also. The toes, which are usually four in all animals of the poultry kind, yet in a species of the cock are found to amount to five. The feathers, which lie so sleek, and in such beautiful order, in most of those we are acquainted with, are, in a peculiar breed, all inverted, and stand staring the wrong way. Nay, there is a species that comes from Japan, which, instead of feathers, seems to be covered all over with hair. These, and many other varieties, are to be found in this animal, which seem to be the marks this early prisoner bears of his long captivity.

It is not well ascertained when the cock was first made domestic in Europe, but it is generally agreed that we first had him in our western world from the kingdom of Persia. Aristophanes calls the cock the *Persian bird*, and tells us he enjoyed that kingdom before some of its earliest monarchs. This animal was in fact known so early, even in the most savage parts of Europe, that we are told the cock was one of the forbidden foods among the ancient Britons. Indeed, the domestic fowl seems to have banished the wild one. Persia itself, that first introduced it to our acquaintance, seems no longer to know it in its natural form; and if we did not find it wild in some of the woods of India, as well as those of the islands in the Indian ocean, we might begin to doubt, as we do with regard to the sheep, in what form it first existed in a state of nature.

But those doubts no longer exist; the cock is found in the island of Tinian, in many others of the Indian ocean, and in the woods on the coast of Malabar, in his ancient state of independence. In his wild condition, his plumage is black and yellow, and his comb and wattles yellow and purple. There is another peculiarity also in those of the Indian woods; their bones, which when boiled with us are white, as every body knows, in those are as black as ebony. Whether this tincture proceeds from their food, as the bones are tintured red by feeding upon madder, I leave to the discussion of others: satisfied with the fact, let us decline speculation.

In their first propagation in Europe, there were distinctions then that now subsist no longer. The ancients esteemed

those fowls whose plumage was reddish as invaluable; but as for the white, it was considered as utterly unfit for domestic purposes. These they regarded as subject to become a prey to rapacious birds; and Aristotle thinks them less fruitful than the former. Indeed, his division of those birds seems to be taken from their culinary uses; the one sort he calls generous and noble, being remarkable for fecundity; the other sort, ignoble and useless, from their sterility. These distinctions differ widely from our modern notions of generosity in this animal; that which we call the *game-cock* being by no means so fruitful as the ungenerous dung-hill-cock, which we treat with contempt. The Athenians had their cock-matches as well as we: but it is probable they did not enter into our refinement of choosing out the most barren of the species for the purposes of combat.

However this be, no animal in the world has greater courage than the cock, when opposed to one of his own species; and in every part of the world where refinement and polished manners have not entirely taken place, cock-fighting is a principal diversion. In China, India, the Philippine islands, and all over the East, cock-fighting is the sport and amusement even of kings and princes. With us it is declining every day; and it is to be hoped it will in time become only the pastime of the lowest vulgar. It is the opinion of many, that we have a bolder and more valiant breed than is to be found elsewhere; and some, indeed, have entered into a serious discussion upon the cause of so flattering a singularity. But the truth is, they have cocks in China as bold, if not bolder, than ours; and, what would still be considered as valuable among cockers here, they have more strength with less weight. Indeed, I have often wondered why men who lay two or three hundred pounds upon the prowess of a single cock, have not taken every method to improve the breed. Nothing, it is probable, could do this more effectually than by crossing the *strain*, as it is called, by a foreign mixture; and whether having recourse even to the wild cock in the forests of India would not be useful, I leave to their consideration. However, it is a mean and ungenerous amusement, nor would I wish much to promote it. The truth is, I could give such instructions with regard to cock-fighting, and could so arm one of these animals against the other, that it would be almost impossible for the adversary's

cock to survive the first or second blow; but, as Boerhaave has said upon a former occasion, when he was treating upon poisons, to teach the arts of cruelty is equivalent to committing them."

This extraordinary courage in the cock is thought to proceed from his being the most salacious of all other birds whatsoever. A single cock suffices for ten or a dozen hens; and it is said of him, that he is the only animal whose spirits are not abated by indulgence. But then he soon grows old; the radical moisture is exhausted; and in three or four years he becomes utterly unfit for the purposes of impregnation. "Hens also," to use the words of Willoughby, "as they for the greatest part of the year daily lay eggs, cannot suffice for so many births, but for the most part, after three years, become effete and barren: for when they have exhausted all their seed-eggs, of which they had but a certain quantity from the beginning, they must necessarily cease to lay, there being no new ones generated within.

The hen seldom clutches a brood of chickens above once a season, though instances have been known in which they produced two. The number of eggs a domestic hen will lay in the year are above two hundred, provided she be well fed, and supplied with water and liberty. It matters not much whether she be trodden by the cock or no; she will continue to lay, although all the eggs of this kind can never, by hatching, be brought to produce a living animal. Her nest is made without any care, if left to herself; a hole scratched into the ground, among a few bushes, is the only preparation she makes for this season of patient expectation. Nature, almost exhausted by its own fecundity, seems to inform her of the proper time for hatching, which she herself testifies by a clucking note, and by discontinuing to lay. The good housewives, who often get more by their hens laying than by their chickens, artificially protract this clucking season, and sometimes entirely remove it. As soon as their hen begins to cluck, they stint her in her provisions; and if that fails, they plunge her into cold water: this, for the time, effectually puts back her hatching; but then it often kills the poor bird, who takes cold, and dies under the operation.

If left entirely to herself, the hen would seldom lay above twenty eggs in the same nest; without attempting to hatch

them: but in proportion as she lays, her eggs are removed; and she continues to lay, vainly hoping to increase the number. In the wild state the hen seldom lays above fifteen eggs; but then her provision is more difficultly obtained, and she is perhaps sensible of the difficulty of maintaining too numerous a family.

When the hen begins to sit, nothing can exceed her perseverance and patience; she continues for some days immoveable; and when forced away by the importunities of hunger, she quickly returns. Sometimes, also, her eggs become too hot for her to bear, especially if she be furnished with too warm a nest within doors, for then she is obliged to leave them to cool a little: thus the warmth of the nest only retards incubation, and often puts the brood a day or two back in the shell. While the hen sits, she carefully turns her eggs, and even removes them to different situations; till at length, in about three weeks, the young brood begin to give signs of a desire to burst their confinement. When, by the repeated efforts of their bill, which serves like a pioneer on this occasion, they have broke themselves a passage through the shell, the hen still continues to sit till all are excluded. The strongest and best chickens generally are the first candidates for liberty: the weakest come behind, and some even die in the shell. When all are produced, she then leads them forth to provide for themselves. Her affection and her pride seem then to alter her very nature, and correct her imperfections. No longer voracious or cowardly, she abstains from all food that her young can swallow, and flies boldly at every creature that she thinks is likely to do them mischief. Whatever the invading animal be, she boldly attacks him; the horse, the hog, or the mastiff. When marching at the head of her little troop, she acts the commander, and has a variety of notes to call her numerous train to their food, or to warn them of approaching danger. Upon one of these occasions I have seen the whole brood run for security into the thickest part of a hedge, when the hen herself ventured boldly forth, and faced a fox that came for plunder. With a good mastiff, however, we soon sent the invader back to his retreat; but not before he had wounded the hen in several places.

Ten or twelve chickens are the greatest number that a

good hen can rear and clutch at a time ; but as this bears no proportion to the number of her eggs, schemes have been imagined to clutch all the eggs of a hen, and thus turn her produce to the greatest advantage. By these contrivances it has been obtained that a hen, that ordinarily produces but twelve chickens in the year, is found to produce as many chickens as eggs, and consequently often above two hundred. The contrivance I mean is the artificial method of hatching chickens in stoves, as is practised at Grand Cairo ; or in a chymical elaboratory properly graduated, as has been effected by Mr. Reaumur. At Grand Cairo they thus produce six or seven thousand chickens at a time ; where, as they are brought forth in their mild spring, which is warmer than our summer, the young ones thrive without clutching : But it is otherwise in our colder and unequal climate ; the little animal may, without much difficulty, be hatched from the shell ; but they almost all perish when excluded. To remedy this, Reaumur has made use of a woollen hen, as he calls it ; which was nothing more than putting the young ones in a warm basket, and clapping over them a thick woollen canopy. I should think a much better substitute might be found ; and this from among the species themselves. Capons may very easily be taught to clutch a fresh brood of chickens throughout the year ; so that when one little colony is thus reared, another may be brought to succeed it. Nothing is more common than to see capons thus employed ; and the manner of teaching them is this : first the capon is made very tame, so as to feed from one's hand ; then, about evening, they pluck the feathers off his breast, and rub the bare skin with nettles ; they then put the chickens to him, which presently run under his breast and belly, and probably rubbing his bare skin gently with their heads allay the stinging pain which the nettles had just produced. This is repeated for two or three nights, till the animal takes an affection to the chickens that have thus given him relief, and continues to give them the protection they seek for : perhaps also the querulous voice of the chickens may be pleasant to him in misery, and invite him to succour the distressed. He from that time brings up a brood of chickens like a hen, clutching them, feeding them, clucking, and performing all the functions of the tenderest parent. A capon once accustomed to this ser-

vice, will not give over; but when one brood is grown up he may have another nearly hatched put under him which he will treat with the same tenderness he did the former.

The cock, from his salaciousness, is allowed to be a short-lived animal; but how long these birds live, if left to themselves, is not yet well ascertained by any historian. As they are kept only for profit, and in a few years become unfit for generation, there are few that, from mere motives of curiosity, will make this tedious experiment of maintaining a proper number till they die. Aldrovandus hints their age to be ten years; and it is probable that this may be its extent. They are subject to some disorders, which it is not our business to describe; and as for poisons, besides nuxvomica, which is fatal to most animals except man, they are injured, as Linnæus asserts, by elder-berries, of which they are not a little fond.

CHAP. III.

OF THE PEACOCK

THE Peacock, by the common people of Italy, is said to have the plumage of an angel, the voice of the devil, and the guts of a thief. In fact, each of these qualities mark pretty well the nature of this extraordinary bird. When it appears with its tail expanded, there is none of the feathered creation can vie with it for beauty; yet the horrid scream of its voice serves to abate the pleasure we find from viewing it; and still more, its insatiable gluttony, and spirit of depredation, make it one of the most noxious domestics that man has taken under his protection.

Our first peacocks were brought from the East Indies; and we are assured, that they are still found in vast flocks, in a wild state, in the islands of Java and Ceylon. So beautiful a bird, and one esteemed such a delicacy at the tables of the luxurious, could not be permitted to continue long at liberty in its distant retreats. So early as the days of

Solomon, we find in his navies, among the articles imported from the east, apes and peacocks. . Ælian relates, that they were brought into Greece from some barbarous country, and were held in such high esteem among them, that a male and female were valued at above thirty pounds of our money. We are told also, that when Alexander was in India, he found them flying wild, in vast numbers, on the banks of the river Hyarotis, and was so struck with their beauty, that he laid a severe fine and punishment on all who should kill or disturb them. Nor are we to be surprised at this, as the Greeks were so much struck with the beauty of this bird, when first brought among them, that every person paid a fixed price for seeing it; and several people came to Athens, from Lacedæmon and Thessaly, purely to satisfy their curiosity.

It was probably first introduced into the West, merely on account of its beauty; but mankind, from contemplating its figure, soon came to think of serving it up for a different entertainment. Aufidius Hurco stands charged by Pliny with being the first who fattened up the peacock for the feast of the luxurious. Whatever there may be of delicacy in the flesh of a young peacock, it is certain an old one is very indifferent eating; nevertheless, there is no mention made of choosing the youngest; it is probable they were killed indiscriminately, the beauty of the feathers in some measure stimulating the appetite. Hortensius, the orator, was the first who served them up at an entertainment at Rome; and from that time they were considered as one of the greatest ornaments of every feast. Whether the Roman method of cookery, which was much higher than ours, might not have rendered them more palatable than we find them at present; I cannot tell; but certain it is, they talk of the peacock as being the first of viands.

Its fame for delicacy, however, did not continue very long; for we find in the times of Francis the First, that it was a custom to serve up peacocks to the tables of the great, with an intention not to be eaten, but only to be seen. Their manner was to strip off the skin; and then preparing the body with the warmest spices, they covered it up again in its former skin; with all its plumage in full display, and no way injured by the preparation. The bird thus prepared, was often preserved for many years without corrupting; and it is

asserted of the peacock's flesh, that it keeps longer unputrified than that of any other animal. To give a higher zest to these entertainments, on weddings particularly, they filled the bird's beak and throat with cotton and camphire, which they set on fire, to amuse and delight the company. I do not know that the peacock is much used at our entertainments at present, except now and then at an alderman's dinner, or a common-council feast, when our citizen's resolve to be splendid; and even then it is never served with its cotton and camphire.

Like other birds of the poultry kind, the peacock feeds upon corn, but its chief predilection is for barley. But as it is a very proud and fickle bird, there is scarcely any food that it will not at times covet and pursue. Insects and tender plants are often eagerly sought at a time that it has a sufficiency of its natural food provided more nearly. In the indulgence of these capricious pursuits, walls cannot easily confine it; it strips the tops of houses of their tiles or thatch; it lays waste the labours of the gardener, roots up his choicest seeds, and nips his favourite flowers in the bud. Thus its beauty but ill recompenses for the mischief it occasions; and many of the more homely looking fowls are very deservedly preferred before it.

Nor is the peacock less a debauchee in its affections, than a glutton in its appetites. He is still more salacious than even the cock; and though not possessed of the same vigour, yet burns with more immoderate desire. He requires five females at least to attend him; and if there be not a sufficient number, he will even run upon and tread the sitting hen. For this reason, the peahen endeavours, as much as she can, to hide her nest from the male, as he would otherwise disturb her sitting, and break her eggs.

The peahen seldom lays above five or six eggs in this climate before she sits. Aristotle describes her as laying twelve; and it is probable, in her native climate, she may be thus prolific; for it is certain, that in the forests where they breed naturally, they are numerous beyond expression. This bird lives about twenty years; and not till its third year has it that beautiful variegated plumage that adorns its tail.

"In the kingdom of Cambaya," says Taverner, "near the city of Baroch, whole flocks of them are seen in the fields. They are very shy, however, and it is impossible to come

near them. They run off swifter than the partridge; and hide themselves in the thickets, where it is impossible to find them. They perch by night upon trees; and the fowler often approaches them at that season with a kind of banner, on which a peacock is painted to the life on either side. A lighted torch is fixed on the top of this decoy; and the peacock; when disturbed, flies to what it takes for another, and is thus caught in a noose prepared for that purpose."

There are varieties of this bird, some of which are white, others crested: that which is called the *Peacock of Thibet*, is the most beautiful of the feathered creation, containing in its plumage all the most vivid colours, red, blue, yellow, and green, disposed in an almost artificial order, as if merely to please the eye of the beholder.

CHAP. IV.

THE TURKEY.

THE natal place of the cock and the peacock is pretty well ascertained, but there are stronger doubts concerning the turkey; some contending that it has been brought into Europe from the East Indies many centuries ago; while others assert, that it is wholly unknown in that part of the world, that it is a native of the New Continent, and that it was not brought into Europe till the discovery of that part of the world.

Those who contend for the latter opinion very truly observe, that among all the descriptions we have of eastern birds, that of the turkey is not to be found; while, on the contrary, it is very well known in the New Continent, where it runs wild about the woods. It is said by them to have been first seen in France in the reign of Francis I. and in England in that of Henry VIII. which is about the time when Mexico was first conquered by Spain. On the other hand it is asserted, that the turkey, so far from being unknown in Europe before that time, was known even to the ancients; and that *Ælian* has given a pretty just description of it. They allege, that its very name implies its having been brought from some part of the east; and that it is

found among other dainties served up to the tables of the great, before that time among ourselves. But what they pretend to be the strongest proof is, that though the wild turkey be so numerous in America, yet the natives cannot contrive to tame it; and though hatched in the ordinary manner, nothing can render it domestic. In this diversity of opinions, perhaps it is best to suspend assent till more lights are thrown on the subject: however, I am inclined to concur with the former opinion.

With us, when young, it is one of the tenderest of all birds; yet, in its wild state, it is found in great plenty in the forests of Canada, that are covered with snow above three parts of the year. In the natural woods, they are found much larger than in their state of domestic captivity. They are much more beautiful also, their feathers being of a dark gray, bordered at the edges with a bright gold colour. These the savages of the country weave into cloaks to adorn their persons, and fashion into fans and umbrellas, but never once think of taking into keeping animals that the woods furnish them with in sufficient abundance. Savage man seems to find a delight in precarious possession. A great part of the pleasure of the chase lies in the uncertainty of the pursuit, and he is unwilling to abridge himself in any accidental success that may attend his fatigues. The hunting the turkey, therefore, makes one of his principal diversions; as its flesh contributes chiefly to the support of his family. When he has discovered the place of their retreat, which, in general, is near fields of nettles, or where there is plenty of any kind of grain, he takes his dog with him, which is trained to the sport, (a faithful rough creature, supposed to be originally reclaimed from the wolf,) and he sends him into the midst of the flock. The turkies no sooner perceive their enemy, than they set off running at full speed, and with such swiftness, that they leave the dog far behind them; he follows, nevertheless, and sensible they must soon be tired, as they cannot go full speed for any length of time, he at last forces them to take shelter in a tree, where they sit quite spent and fatigued, till the hunter comes up, and, with a long pole, knocks them down, one after the other.

This manner of suffering themselves to be destroyed, argues no great instinct in the animal; and, indeed, in their captive state they do not appear to be possessed of much.

They seem a stupid, vain, querulous tribe, apt enough to quarrel among themselves, yet without any weapons to do each other an injury. Every body knows the strange antipathy the turkey-cock has to a red colour; how he bristles, and, with his peculiar gobbling sound, flies to attack it.— But there is another method of increasing the animosity of these birds against each other, which is often practised by boys, when they have a mind for a battle. This is no more than to smear over the head of one of the turkeys with dirt, and the rest run to attack it with all the speed of impotent animosity: nay, two of them, thus disguised, will fight each other till they are almost suffocated with fatigue and anger.

But though so furious among themselves, they are weak and cowardly against other animals, though far less powerful than they. The cock often makes the turkey keep at a distance; and they seldom venture to attack him but with united force, when they rather oppress him by their weight, than annoy him by their arms. There is no animal, how contemptible soever, that will venture boldly to face the turkey-cock, that he will not fly from. On the contrary, with the insolence of a bully, he pursues any thing that seems to fear him, particularly lap-dogs and children, against both which he seems to have a peculiar aversion. On such occasions, after he has made them scamper, he returns to his female train, displays his plumage around, struts about the yard, and gobbles out a note of self-approbation.*

* In the American Medical Repository, an instance is recorded, where the turkey-cock seemed to shew a considerable share of courage and prowess. A gentleman of New York received from a distant part a turkey-cock and hen, and with them a pair of bantams: these he put all together into the yard with his other poultry. Some time afterwards, as he was feeding them from the barn-door, a large hawk suddenly turned the corner of the barn, and made a pounce at the bantam hen: she immediately gave the alarm, by a noise which is natural to her on such occasions; when the turkey-cock, who was at the distance of about two yards, and without doubt understood the hawk's intentions, and the immediate danger of his old acquaintance, flew at the tyrant with such violence, and gave him so severe a stroke with his spurs, as to knock him from the hen to a considerable distance; and the timely aid of this friendly auxiliary completely saved the bantam from being devoured.

The female seems of a milder, gentler disposition. Rather querulous than bold, she hunts about in quest of grain, and pursuit of insects, being particularly delighted with the eggs of ants and caterpillars. She lays eighteen or twenty eggs, larger than those of a hen, whitish, but marked with spots resembling the freckles of the face. Her young are extremely tender at first, and must be carefully fed with curd chopped with dock-leaves; but as they grow older, they become more hardy, and follow the mother to considerable distances, in pursuit of insect food, which they prefer to any other. On these occasions, however, the female, though so large, and, as it would seem, so powerful a bird, gives them but very little protection against the attacks of any rapacious animal that comes in her way. She rather warns her young to shift for themselves, than prepares to defend them. "I have heard," says the Abbe la Pluche, "a turkey-hen, when at the head of her brood, send forth the most hideous screams, without knowing as yet the cause: however, her young, immediately when the warning was given, skulked under the bushes, the grass, or whatever else offered for shelter or protection. They even stretched themselves at their full length upon the ground, and continued lying as motionless as if they were dead. In the mean time the mother, with her eyes directed upwards, continued her cries and screaming as before. Upon looking up to where she seemed to gaze, I discovered a black spot just under the clouds, but was unable, at first, to determine what it was; however, it soon appeared to be a bird of prey, though, at first, at too great a distance to be distinguished. I have seen one of these animals continue in this violent agitated state, and her whole brood pinned down as it were to the ground for four hours together; whilst their formidable foe has taken his circuits, has mounted, and hovered directly over their heads: at last, upon disappearing, the parent began to change her note, and sent forth another cry, which, in an instant, gave life to the whole trembling tribe, and they all flocked round her with expressions of pleasure, as if conscious of their happy escape from danger."

When once grown up, turkeys are very hardy birds, and feed themselves at very little expense to the farmer. Those of Norfolk are said to be the largest of this kingdom,

weighing from twenty to thirty pounds. There are places, however, in the East Indies, where they are known only in their domestic state, in which they grow to the weight of sixty pounds.

CHAP. V.

THE PHEASANT.

It would surprise a sportsman to be told, that the pheasant, which he finds wild in the woods, in the remotest parts of the kingdom, and in forests which can scarcely be said to have an owner, is a foreign bird, and was, at first, artificially propagated amongst us. They were brought into Europe from the banks of the Phasis, a river of Colchis, in Asia Minor; and from whence they still retain their name.

Next to the peacock, they are the most beautiful of birds, as well for the vivid colour of their plumes, as for their happy mixtures and variety. It is far beyond the power of the pencil to draw any thing so glossy, so bright, or points so finely blended into each other. We are told that when Croesus, king of Lydia, was seated on his throne, adorned with royal magnificence, and all the barbarous pomp of eastern splendour, he asked Solon if he had ever beheld any thing so fine? The Greek philosopher, no way moved by the objects before him, or taking a pride in his native simplicity, replied, that after having seen the beautiful plumage of the pheasant, he could be astonished at no other finery.

In fact, nothing can satisfy the eye with a greater variety and richness of ornament than this beautiful creature. The iris of the eye is yellow; and the eyes themselves are surrounded with a scarlet colour, sprinkled with small specks of black. On the forepart of the head there are blackish feathers mixed with a shining purple. The top of the head and the upper part of the neck are tinged with a darkish green, that shines like silk. In some, the top of the head is of a shining blue, and the head itself, as well as the upper part of the neck, appears sometimes blue and sometimes green, as it is differently placed to the eye of the spectator. The feathers of the breast, the shoulders, the middle of the

back, and the sides under the wings, have a blackish ground, with edges tinged of an exquisite colour, which appears sometimes black and sometimes purple, according to the different lights it is placed in; under the purple there is a transverse streak of gold colour. The tail, from the middle feathers to the root, is about eighteen inches long; the legs, the feet, and the toes, are of the colour of horn. There are black spurs on the legs, shorter than those of a cock; there is a membrane that connects two of the toes together; and the male is much more beautiful than the female.

This bird, though so beautiful to the eye, is not less delicate when served up to the table. Its flesh is considered as the greatest dainty; and when the old physicians spoke of the wholesomeness of any viands, they made their comparison with the flesh of the pheasant. However, notwithstanding all these perfections to tempt the curiosity or the palate, the pheasant has multiplied in its wild state; and, as if disdaining the protection of man, has left him to take shelter in the thickest woods and the remotest forests. All others of the domestic kind, the cock, the turkey, or the pintada, when once reclaimed, have still continued in their domestic state, and persevered in the habits and appetites of willing slavery. But the pheasant, though taken from its native warm retreats, where the woods supply variety of food; and the warm sun suits its tender constitution, has still continued its attachment to native freedom; and now wild among us, makes the most envied ornament of our parks and forests, where he feeds upon acorns and berries, and the scanty produce of our chilling climate.

This spirit of independence seems to attend the pheasant even in captivity. In the woods, the hen pheasant lays from eighteen to twenty eggs in a season; but in a domestic state she seldom lays above ten. In the same manner, when wild she hatches and leads up her brood with patience, vigilance, and courage; but when kept tame, she never sits well; so that a hen is generally her substitute upon such occasions; and as for leading her young to their food, she is utterly ignorant of where it is to be found; and the young birds starve, if left solely to her protection. The pheasant therefore, on every account, seems better left at large in the woods, than reclaimed to pristine captivity. Its fecundity when wild is sufficient to stock the forest;

its beautiful plumage adorns it ; and its flesh retains a higher flavour from its unlimited freedom.

However, it has been the aim of late to take these birds once more from the woods, and to keep them in places fitted for their reception. Like all others of the poultry kind, they have no great sagacity, and suffer themselves easily to be taken. At night they roost upon the highest trees of the wood ; and by day they come down into the lower brakes and bushes, where their food is chiefly found. They generally make a kind of flapping noise when they are with the females ; and this often apprises the sportsman of their retreats. At other times he tracts them in the snow, and frequently takes them in springs. But of all birds they are shot most easily, as they always make a whirring noise when they rise, by which they alarm the gunner, and being a large mark, and flying very slow, there is scarcely any missing them.

Ah ! what avail his glossy, varying dyes,
His purpled crest, and scarlet-circled eyes,
The vivid green his shining plumes unfold,
His painted wings, and breast that flames with gold ! POPE.

When these birds are taken young into keeping, they become as familiar as chickens ; and when they are designed for breeding, they are put together in a yard, five hens to a cock ; for this bird, like all of the poultry kind, is very salacious. In her natural state the female makes her nest of dry grass and leaves ; the same must be laid for her in the pheasantry, and she herself will sometimes properly dispose them. If she refuses to hatch her eggs, then a common hen must be got to supply her place, which task she will perform with perseverance and success. The young ones are very difficult to be reared ; and they must be supplied with ants' eggs, which is the food the old one leads them to gather when wild in the woods. To make these go the farther, they are chopped up with curds, or other meat ; and the young ones are to be fed with great exactness, both as to the quantity and the time of their supply. This food is sometimes also to be varied, and woodlice, earwigs, and other insects, are to make a variety. The place where they are reared must be kept extremely clean ; their water must be changed twice or thrice a day ; they must not be exposed

till the dew is off the ground in the morning; and they should always be taken in before sun-set. When they become adult, they very well can shift for themselves, but they are particularly fond of oats and barley.

In order to increase the breed, and make it still more valuable, Longolius teaches us a method that appears very peculiar. The pheasant is a very bold bird, when first brought into the yard among other poultry, not sparing the peacock, nor even such young cocks and hens as it can master; but after a time it will live tamely among them, and will at last be brought to couple with a common hen. The breed thus produced take much stronger after the pheasant than the hen; and in a few successions, if they be left to breed with a cock pheasant, (for the mixture is not barren,) there will be produced a species more tame, stronger, and more prolific; so that he adds, that it is strange why most of our pheasantries are not stocked with birds produced in this manner.

The pheasant, when full grown, seems to feed indifferently upon every thing that offers. It is said by a French writer, that one of the king's sportsmen shooting at a parcel of crows, that were gathered round a dead carcase, to his great surprise upon coming up, found that he had killed as many pheasants as crows. It is even asserted by some, that such is the carnivorous disposition of this bird, that when several of them are put together in the same yard, if one of them happens to fall sick, or seems to be pining, that all the rest will fall upon, kill, and devour it. Such is the language of books; those who have frequent opportunities of examining the manners of the bird itself, know what credit ought to be given to such an account.

Of the pheasant, as of all other domestic fowl, there are many varieties. There are white pheasants, crested pheasants, spotted pheasants; but of all others, the golden pheasant of China is the most beautiful. It is a doubt whether the peacock itself can bear the comparison. However, the natives of China would not have us consider it as their most beautiful bird, though covered all over with eyes, resembling in miniature those of the peacock. By their accounts, it is far exceeded by the fongwang, an imaginary bird, of which they give a most fantastic description. It is thus that the people of every country, though possessed of the greatest

advantages, have still others that they would persuade strangers, they enjoy, which have existence only in the imagination.

CHAP. VI.

THE PINTADA, OR GUINEA-HEN.

THIS is a very remarkable bird, and in some measure unites the characteristics of the pheasant and the turkey. It has the fine delicate shape of the one, and the bare head of the other. To be more particular, it is about the size of a common hen, but as it is supported on longer legs, it looks much larger. It has a round back, with a tail turned downwards like a partridge. The head is covered with a kind of casque; and the whole plumage is black or dark gray, speckled with white spots. It has wattles under the bill, which do not proceed from the lower chap as in cocks, but from the upper, which gives it a very peculiar air; while its restless gait and odd chuckling sound distinguish it sufficiently from all other birds whatever.

It is well known all over Europe, and even better than with us, as the nations that border on the Mediterranean probably had it before us from those parts of Africa which lay nearest. Accordingly we find it in different countries called by different names, from the place whence they had it. They are by some called the *Barbary-hen*; by others, the *Tamis bird*; and by others, the *bird of Numidia*. We have given it the name of that part of Africa from whence, probably it was first brought.

In many parts of their native country, they are seen in vast flocks together, feeding their young, and leading them in quest of food. All their habits are like those of the poultry kind, and they agree in every other respect, except that the male and female are so much alike, that they can hardly be distinguished asunder. The only difference lies in the wattles described above; which in the cock are of a bluish cast; in the hen they are more inclining to a red. Their eggs, like their bodies, are speckled; in our climate, they lay but five or six in a season; but they are far more prolific in their sultry regions at home. They are kept among us rather for show than use, as their flesh is not much esteemed, and as they give a good deal of trouble in rearing.

CHAP. VII.

THE BUSTARD.

THE Bustard is the largest land bird that is a native of Britain. It was once much more numerous than it is at present; but the increased cultivation of the country, and the extreme delicacy of its flesh, has greatly thinned the species; so that a time may come when it may be doubted whether ever so large a bird was bred among us. It is probable that long before this the bustard would have been extirpated, but for its peculiar manner of feeding. Had it continued to seek shelter among our woods, in proportion as they were cut down, it must have been destroyed. If in the forest, the fowler might approach it without being seen; and the bird, from its size, would be too great a mark to be easily missed. But it inhabits only the open and extensive plain, where its food lies in abundance, and where every invader may be seen at a distance.

The bustard is much larger than the turkey, the male generally weighing from twenty-five to twenty-seven pounds. The neck is a foot long, and the legs a foot and a half. The wings are not proportionable to the rest of the body, being but four feet from the tip of the one to the other; for which reason the bird flies with great difficulty. The head and neck of the male are ash-coloured; the back is barred transversely with black, bright, and rust colour. The greater quill-feathers are black; the belly white; and the tail, which consists of twenty feathers, is marked with broad black bars.

It would seem odd, as was hinted before, how so large a land bird as this could find shelter in so cultivated a country as England; but the wonder will cease when we find it only in the most open countries, where there is scarce any approaching it without being discovered. They are frequently seen in flocks of fifty or more, in the extensive downs of Salisbury Plain, in the heaths of Sussex and Cambridgeshire, the Dorsetshire uplands, and so on as far as East Lothian in Scotland. In those extensive plains, where there are no weeds to screen the sportsman, nor hedges to creep along,

the bustards enjoy an indolent security. Their food is composed of the berries that grow among the heath, and the large earth-worms that appear in great quantities on the downs before sun-rising in summer. It is in vain that the fowler creeps forward to approach them, they have always sentinels placed at proper eminences, which are ever on the watch, and warn the flock of the smallest appearance of danger. All therefore that is left the sportsman, is the comfortless view of their distant security. He may wish; but they are in safety.

It sometimes happens that these birds, though they are seldom shot by the gun, are often run down by grayhounds. As they are voracious and greedy, they often sacrifice their safety to their appetite, and feed themselves so very fat, that they are unable to fly without great preparation. When the grayhound, therefore, comes within a certain distance, the bustard runs off flapping its wings, and endeavouring to gather air enough under them to rise; in the mean time, the enemy approaches nearer and nearer, till it is too late for the bird even to think of obtaining safety by flight; for just at the rise there is always time lost, and of this the bird is sensible; it continues, therefore, on the foot, until it has got a sufficient way before the dog for flight, or until it is taken.

As there are few places where they can at once find proper food and security, so they generally continue near their old haunts, seldom wandering above twenty or thirty miles from home. As their food is replete with moisture, it enables them to live upon these dry plains, where there are scarcely any springs of water, a long time without drinking. Besides this, Nature has given the males an admirable magazine for their security against thirst. This is a pouch, the entrance of which lies immediately under the tongue, and capable of holding near seven quarts of water.* This is probably filled upon proper occasions, to supply the hen when sitting, or the young before they can fly.

Like all other birds of the poultry kind, they change their

* The size of this reservoir, seems something exaggerated: for with an addition of nearly fourteen pounds weight thrown forwards, the centre of gravity must be so much overbalanced as to destroy its power of flight, and impede its running. About half this quantity seems a probable sufficiency for all its wants.

mates at the season of incubation, which is about the latter end of summer. They separate in pairs, if there be a sufficiency of females for the males: but when this happens to be otherwise, the males fight until one of them falls. In France, they often find some of those victims to gallantry dead in the fields, and no doubt are not displeased at the occasion.

They make their nests upon the ground, only just scraping a hole in the earth, and sometimes lining it with a little long grass or straw. There they lay two eggs only, almost of the size of a goose egg, of a pale olive brown, marked with spots of a darker colour. They hatch in about five weeks, and the young ones run about as soon as they are out of the shell.

The bustards assemble in flocks in the month of October, and keep together till April. In winter, as their food becomes more scarce, they support themselves indiscriminately, by feeding on moles, mice, and even little birds, when they can seize them. For want of other food, they are contented to live upon turnip-leaves, and such like succulent vegetables. In some parts of Switzerland, they are found frozen in the fields in severe weather; but when taken to a warm place, they again recover. They usually live fifteen years, and are incapable of being propagated in a domestic state, as they probably want that food which best agrees with their appetite.

CHAP. VIII.

THE GROUSE, AND ITS AFFINITIES.

THE Cock of the Wood, the Black Cock, the Grouse, and the Ptarmigan—these are all birds of a similar nature, and chiefly found in heathy mountains and pine forests, at a distance from mankind. They might once indeed have been common enough all over England, when a great part of the country was covered with heath; but at present their numbers are thinned; the two first of this kind are utterly unknown in the south, and have taken refuge in the northern

parts of Scotland; where the extensive heaths afford them security, and the forests shelter.

The cock of the wood is sometimes of the size of a turkey, and often weighs near fourteen pounds; the black cock, of which the male is all over black, though the female is of the colour of a partridge, is about the size of a hen, and, like the former, is only found with us in the highlands of Scotland; the grouse is about half as large again as a partridge, and its colour much like that of a woodcock, but redder; the ptarmigan is still somewhat less, and is of a pale brown or ash-colour. They are all distinguishable from other birds of the poultry kind by a naked skin of a scarlet colour, above the eyes, in the place and of the figure of eye-brows.

It seems to be something extraordinary, that all the larger wild animals of every species choose the darkest and the inmost recesses of the woods for their residence, while the smaller kinds come more into the open and cultivated parts, where there is more food and more danger. It is thus with the birds I am describing: while the cock of the wood is seldom seen, except on the inaccessible parts of heathy mountains, or in the midst of piny forests, the grouse is found in great numbers in the neighbourhood of corn-fields, where there is heath to afford retreat and shelter.—Their food too somewhat differs; while the smaller kind lives upon heath blossoms, cranberries, and corn, the larger feeds upon the cones of the pine-tree; and will sometimes entirely strip one tree before it offers to touch those of another, though just beside him. In other respects, the manners of these birds are the same; being both equally simple in their diet, and licentious in their amours.

The Cock of the Wood, for it is from him we will take our description, is, as was said, chiefly fond of a mountainous and woody situation. In winter he resides in the darkest and inmost part of the woods; in summer, he ventures down from his retreats, to make short depredations on the farmer's corn. The delicacy of his flesh, in some measure, sets a high price upon his head; and as he is greatly sought after, so he continues, when he comes down from the hills, always on his guard. Upon these occasions, he is seldom surprised; and those who would take him, must venture up to find him in his native retreats.

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The cock of the wood, when in the forests, attaches himself principally to the oak and the pine-tree; the cones of the latter serving for his food, and the thick boughs for a habitation. He even makes a choice of what cones he shall feed upon; for he sometimes will strip one tree bare before he will deign to touch the cones of another. He feeds also upon ants' eggs, which seem a high delicacy to all birds of the poultry kind: cranberries are likewise often found in his crop; and his gizzard, like that of domestic fowls, contains a quantity of gravel, for the purposes of assisting his powers of digestion.

At the earliest return of spring, this bird begins to feel the genial influence of the season. During the month of March, the approaches of courtship are continued, and do not desist till the trees have all their leaves, and the forest is in full bloom. During this whole season, the cock of the wood is seen at sunrise and setting, extremely active, upon one of the largest branches of the pine-tree. With his tail raised and expanded like a fan, and the wings drooping, he is seen walking backward and forward, his neck stretched out, his head swollen and red, and making a thousand ridiculous postures: his cry upon that occasion is a kind of loud explosion, which is instantly followed by a noise like the whetting of a scythe, which ceases and commences alternately for about an hour, and is then terminated by the same explosion.

During the time this singular cry continues, the bird seems entirely deaf and insensible of every danger; whatever noise may be made near him, or even though fired at, he still continues his call; and this is the time that sportsmen generally take to shoot him. Upon all other occasions, he is the most timorous and watchful bird in nature; but now he seems entirely absorbed by his instincts; and seldom leaves the place where he first begins to feel the accesses of desire. This extraordinary cry, which is accompanied by a clapping of the wings, is no sooner finished, than the female, hearing it, replies, approaches, and places herself under the tree, from whence the cock descends to impregnate her. The number of females that, on this occasion, resort to his call is uncertain; but one male generally suffices for all.

The female is much less than her mate, and entirely un-

like him in plumage, so that she might be mistaken for a bird of another species: she seldom lays more than six or seven eggs, which are white, and marked with yellow, of the size of a common hen's egg; she generally lays them in a dry place, and a mossy ground, and hatches them without the company of the cock. When she is obliged, during the time of incubation, to leave her eggs in quest of food, she covers them up so artfully, with moss or dry leaves, that it is extremely difficult to discover them. On this occasion, she is extremely tame and tranquil, however wild and timorous in ordinary. She often keeps to her nest, though strangers attempt to drag her away.

As soon as the young ones are hatched, they are seen running with extreme agility after the mother, though sometimes they are not entirely disengaged from the shell. The hen leads them forward, for the first time, into the woods, shews them ants' eggs, and the wild mountain-berries, which, while young, are their only food. As they grow older, their appetites grow stronger, and they then feed upon the tops of hether, and the cones of the pine-tree. In this manner they soon come to perfection: they are a hardy bird, their food lies every where before them, and it would seem that they should increase in great abundance. But this is not the case; their numbers are thinned by rapacious birds and beasts of every kind; and still more by their own salacious contests.

As soon as the clutching is over, which the female performs in the manner of a hen, the whole brood follows the mother for about a month or two; at the end of which the young males entirely forsake her, and keep in great harmony together till the beginning of spring. At this season, they begin, for the first time, to feel the genial access; and then adieu to all their former friendships! They begin to consider each other as rivals; and the rage of concupiscence quite extinguishes the spirit of society. They fight each other like game-cocks; and at that time are so inattentive to their own safety, that it often happens that two or three of them are killed at a shot. It is probable that in these contests, the bird which comes off victorious takes possession of the female seraglio, as it is certain they have no faithful attachments.*

* This account is from the Journal Œconomique, and may be relied on.

CHAP. IX.

OF THE PARTRIDGE, AND ITS VARIETIES.

THE Partridge may be particularly considered as belonging to the sportsman. It is a bird which even our laws have taken under protection; and, like a peacock or a hen, may be ranked as a private property. The only difference now is, that we feed one in our farms, the other in our yards: that these are contented captives; those, servants that have it in their power to change their master, by changing their habitation.

“These birds,” says Willoughby, “hold the principal place in the feasts and entertainments of princes; without which their feasts are esteemed ignoble, vulgar, and of no account. The Frenchmen do so highly value, and are so fond of, the partridge, that if they be wanting, they utterly slight and despise the best-spread tables; as if there could be no feast without them.” But however this might be in the times of our historian, the partridge is now too common in France to be considered as a delicacy: and this, as well as every other simple dish, is exploded for luxuries of a more compound invention.

In England, where the partridge is much scarcer, and a great deal dearer, it is still a favourite delicacy at the tables of the rich; and the desire of keeping it to themselves, has induced them to make laws for its preservation, no way harmonizing with the general spirit of English legislation. What can be more arbitrary than to talk of preserving the game; which, when defined, means no more than that the poor shall abstain from what the rich have taken a fancy to keep for themselves? If these birds could, like a cock or a hen, be made legal property, could they be taught to keep within certain districts, and only feed on those grounds that belong to the man whose entertainments they improve, it then might, with some shew of justice, be admitted, that as a man fed them, so he might claim them. But this is not the case; nor is it in any man's power to lay a restraint upon the liberty of these birds, that, when let loose, put no limits to their excursions. They feed every where; upon

every man's ground; and no man can say these birds are fed only by me. Those birds which are nourished by all, belong to all; nor can any one man, or any set of men, lay claim to them, when still continuing in a state of nature.

I never walked out about the environs of Paris, that I did not consider the immense quantity of game that was running almost tame on every side me, as a badge of the slavery of the people; and what they wished me to observe as an object of triumph, I always regarded with a kind of secret compassion: yet this people have no game-laws for the remoter parts of the kingdom; the game is only preserved in a few places for the king, and is free in most places else. In England, the prohibition is general; and the peasant has not a right to what even slaves, as he is taught to call them, are found to possess.

Of partridges there are two kinds; the gray and the red. The red partridge is the largest of the two, and often perches upon trees; the gray, with which we are best acquainted in England, is most prolific, and always keeps on the ground.

The partridge seems to be a bird well known all over the world, as it is found in every country, and in every climate; as well in the frozen regions about the pole, as the torrid tracts under the equator. It even seems to adapt itself to the nature of the climate where it resides. In Greenland, the partridge, which is brown in summer, as soon as the icy winter sets in, begins to take a covering suited to the season: it is then clothed with a warm down beneath; and its outward plumage assumes the colour of the snows amongst which it seeks its food. Thus it is doubly fitted for the place, by the warmth and the colour of its plumage; the one to defend it from the cold, the other to prevent its being noticed by the enemy. Those of Barakonda, on the other hand, are longer-legged, much swifter of foot, and choose the highest rocks and precipices to reside in.

They all, however, agree in one character, of being immoderately addicted to venery; and, as some writers affirm, often to an unnatural degree. It is certain the male will pursue the hen even to her nest; and will break her eggs, rather than not indulge his inclinations. Though the young ones have kept together in flocks during the winter, when they begin to pair in spring, their society disperses, and

combats, very terrible with respect to each other, ensue. Their manners, in other circumstances, resemble all those of poultry in general; but their cunning and instincts seem superior to those of the larger kinds. Perhaps, as they live in the very neighbourhood of their enemies, they have more frequent occasion to put their little arts in practice; and learn, by habit, the means of evasion or safety. Whenever, therefore, a dog, or other formidable animal, approaches their nest, the female uses every means to draw him away. She keeps just before him, pretends to be incapable of flying, just hops up, and then falls down before him, but never goes off so far as to discourage her pursuer. At length, when she has drawn him entirely away from her secret treasure, she at once takes wing, and fairly leaves him to gaze after her in despair.

After the danger is over, and the dog withdrawn, she then calls her young, who assemble at once at her cry, and follow where she leads them. There are generally from ten to fifteen in a covey; and, if unmolested, they live from fifteen to seventeen years.

There are several methods of taking them, as is well known: that by which they are taken in a net with a setting-dog, is the most pleasant, as well as the most secure. The dog, as every body knows, is trained to this exercise by a long course of education: by blows and caresses he is taught to lie down at the word of command; a partridge is shewn him, and he is then ordered to lie down: he is brought into the field, and when the sportsman perceives where the covey lies, he orders his dog to crouch: at length the dog, from habit, crouches wherever he approaches a covey; and this is the signal which the sportsman receives for unfolding, and covering the birds with his net. A covey thus caught, is sometimes fed in a place proper for their reception; but they can never be thoroughly tamed, like the rest of our domestic poultry.

CHAP. X.

THE QUAIL.

THE last of the poultry kind that I shall mention, is the quail; a bird much smaller than any of the former, being not above half the size of a partridge. The feathers of the head are black, edged with rusty brown; the breast is of a pale yellowish red, spotted with black; the feathers on the back are marked with lines of a pale yellow, and the legs are of a pale hue. Except in the colours thus described, and the size, it every way resembles a partridge in shape; and, except that it is a bird of passage, all others of the poultry kind, in its habits and nature.

The quail is by all known to be a bird of passage; and yet if we consider its heavy manner of flying, and its dearth of plumage, with respect to its corpulence, we shall be surprised how a bird so apparently ill qualified for migration, should take such extensive journies. Notling, however, is more certain: "When we sailed from Rhodes to Alexandria," says Bellonius, "about autumn, many quails, flying from the north to the south, were taken in our ship; and sailing at spring-time, the contrary way, from the south to the north, I observed them on their return, when many of them were taken in the same manner." This account is confirmed by many others; who aver, that they choose a north wind for these adventures; the south wind being very unfavourable, as it retards their flight, by moistening their plumage. They then fly two by two; continuing, when their way lies over land, to go faster by night than by day; and to fly very high, to avoid being surprised or set upon by birds of prey. However, it still remains a doubt whether quails take such long journies as Bellonius has made them perform. It is now asserted by some, that the quail only migrates from one province of a country to another. For instance, in England, they fly from the inland counties, to those bordering on the sea, and continue there all the winter. If frost or snow drive them out of the stubble-fields or marshes, they then retreat to the sea-side, shelter themselves among the weeds, and live upon what is thrown up from the sea upon shore. Particularly in Essex, the time of their

appearance upon the coasts of that country exactly coincides with their disappearance from the more internal parts of the kingdom ; so that what has been said of their long flights, is probably not so well founded as is generally supposed.

These birds are much less prolific than the partridge ; seldom laying more than six or seven whitish eggs, marked with ragged rust-coloured spots. But their ardour in courtship yields scarcely to any other bird, as they are fierce and cruel at that season to each other, fighting most desperately, and (a punishment they richly deserve) being at that time very easily taken. Quail-fighting was a favourite amusement among the Athenians : they abstained from the flesh of this bird, deeming it unwholesome, as supposing that it fed upon the white hellbore ; but they reared great numbers of them, for the pleasure of seeing them fight ; and staked sums of money, as we do with regard to cocks, upon the success of the combat. Fashion, however, has at present changed with regard to this bird ; we take no pleasure in its courage, but its flesh is considered as a very great delicacy.

Quails are easily caught by a call : the fowler, early in the morning, having spread his net, hides himself under it among the corn ; he then imitates the voice of the female with his quail-pipe, which the cock hearing, approaches with the utmost assiduity ; when he has got under the net, the fowler then discovers himself, and terrifies the quail, who attempting to get away, entangles himself the more in the net, and is taken. The quail may thus very well serve to illustrate the old adage, that every passion, carried to an inordinate excess, will at last lead to ruin.

[In this place it may be proper to mention a curious bird of South America, called the Trumpeter, as it seems, both in its formation and manners, to approach nearest to the poultry kind. It is about the size of a large fowl. Its general plumage is black ; the neck and breast glossy changeable green ; the bill yellowish green, the upper mandible a little convex ; the legs are greenish. The Trumpeter is so called from the singular noise it makes. It is easily domesticated, and discovers a great degree of attachment to those who take notice of it and feed it, and follows them like a dog ; but bites the legs of those to whom it takes a dislike, following them to a great distance, and shewing every mark of displeasure.]

BOOK IV.

OF BIRDS OF THE PIE KIND.

CHAP. I.

OF BIRDS OF THE PIE KIND.

IN marshalling our army of the feathered creation, we have placed in the van a race of birds long bred to war, and whose passion is slaughter; in the centre we have placed the slow and heavy laden, that are usually brought into the field to be destroyed; we now come to a kind of light infantry, that partake something of the spirit of the two former, and yet belonging to neither. In this class we must be content to marshal a numerous irregular tribe, variously armed, with different pursuits, appetites, and manners; not formidably formed for war, and yet generally delighting in mischief, not slowly and usefully obedient, and yet without any professed enmity to the rest of their fellow tenants of air.

To speak without metaphor; under this class of birds we may arrange all that noisy, restless, chattering, teasing tribe, that lies between the hen and the thrush, that, from the size of the raven down to that of the woodpecker, flutter round our habitations, and, rather with the spirit of pilferers than of robbers, make free with the fruits of human industry.

Of all the other classes, this seems to be that which the least contributes to furnish out the pleasures, or supply the necessities, of man. The falcon hunts for him; the poultry tribe supplies him with luxurious food; and the little sparrow race delight him with the melody of their warblings. The crane kind make a studied variety in his entertainments; and the class of ducks are not only many of them delicate in their flesh, but extremely useful for

their feathers. But in the class of the pie kind, there are few, except the pigeon, that are any way useful. They serve rather to teaze man, than to assist or amuse him. Like faithless servants, they are fond of his neighbourhood, because they mostly live by his labour; but their chief study is what they can plunder in his absence, while their deaths make him no atonement for their depredation.

But though, with respect to man, this whole class is rather noxious than beneficial; though he may consider them in this light, as false, noisy, troublesome neighbours, yet, with respect to each other, no class of birds are so ingenious, so active, or so well fitted for society. Could we suppose a kind of morality among birds, we should find that these are by far the most industrious, the most faithful, the most constant, and the most connubial. The rapacious kinds drive out their young before they are fit to struggle with adversity; but the pie kind cherish their young to the last. The poultry class are faithless and promiscuous in their courtship; but these live in pairs, and their attachments are wholly confined to each other. The sparrow kind frequently overleap the bounds of nature, and make illicit varieties; but these never. They live in harmony with each other; every species is true to its kind, and transmits an unpolluted race to posterity.

As other kinds build in rocks or upon the ground, the chief place where these build is in trees or bushes; the male takes his share in the labours of building the nest, and often relieves his mate in the duties of incubation. Both take this office by turns; and when the young are excluded, both are equally active in making them an ample provision.

They sometimes live in societies; and in these there are general laws observed, and a kind of republican form of government established among them. They watch not only for the general safety, but for that of every other bird of the grove. How often have we seen a fowler, stealing in upon a flock of ducks or wild geese, disturbed by the alarming note of a crow or a magpie: its single voice gave the whole thoughtless tribe warning, and taught them in good time to look to their safety.

Nor are these birds less remarkable for their instincts than their capacity for instruction. There is an apparent cunning or archness in the look of the whole tribe ; and I have seen crows and ravens taught to fetch and carry with the docility of a spaniel. Indeed, it is often an exercise that, without teaching, all this tribe are but too fond of. Every body knows what a passion they have for shining substances, and such toys as some of us put a value upon. A whole family has been alarmed at the loss of a ring ; every servant has been accused, and every creature in the house, conscious of their own innocence, suspected each other ; when, to the utter surprise of all, it has been found in the nest of a tame magpie or a jackdaw, that nobody had ever thought of.

However, as this class is very numerous, it is not to be supposed that the manners are alike in all. Some, such as the pigeon, are gentle and serviceable to man ; others are noxious, capricious, and noisy. In a few general characters they all agree ; namely, in having hoarse voices, slight active bodies, and a facility of flight, that baffles even the boldest of the rapacious kinds in the pursuit. I will begin with those birds which most properly may be said to belong to this class, and go on till I finish with the pigeon, a harmless bird, that resembles this tribe in little else except their size, and that seems to be the shade uniting the pie and the sparrow kind into one general picture.

It is not to be expected that in this sketch of the great magazine of nature, we can stop singly to contemplate every object. To describe the number that offers would be tedious, and the similitude that one bears to another would make the history disgusting. As a historian in relating the actions of some noble people does not stop to give the character of every private man in the army, but only of such as have been distinguished by their conduct, courage, or treachery ; so should the historian of nature only seize upon the most striking objects before him ; and having given one common account of the most remarkable, refer the peculiarities of the rest to their general description.

CHAP. II.

OF THE RAVEN, THE CROW, AND THEIR AFFINITIES.

THE Raven, the Carrion-crow, and the Rook, are birds so well known, that a long description would but obscure our ideas of them. The Raven is the largest of the three, and distinguished from the rest not only by his size, but by his bill being somewhat more hooked than that of the rest. As for the carrion-crow and the rook, they so strongly resemble each other, both in make and size, that they are not easily distinguished asunder. The chief difference to be found between them lies in the bill of the rook; which, by being frequently thrust into the ground to fetch out grubs and earth-worms, is bare of feathers as far as the eyes, and appears of a whitish colour. It differs also in the purple splendour or gloss of its feathers, which in the carrion-crow are of a more dirty black. Nor is it amiss to make these distinctions, as the rook has but too frequently suffered for its similitude to the carrion crow; and thus a harmless bird, that feeds only upon insects and corn, has been destroyed for another that feeds upon carrion, and is often destructive among young poultry.

The manners of the raven and the carrion-crow are exactly similar; they both feed upon carrion; they fly only in pairs; and will destroy other birds, if they can take them by surprise. But it is very different with the rook, the daw, and the Cornish chough, which may be all ranked in this order. They are sociable and harmless; they live only upon insects and grain; and wherever they are, instead of injuring other birds, they seem sentinels for the whole feathered creation. It will be proper, therefore, to describe these two sorts according to their respective appetites, as they have nothing in common but the very strong similitude they bear to each other in their colour and formation.

The raven is a bird found in every region of the world; strong and hardy, he is uninfluenced by the changes of the weather; and when other birds seem numbed with cold, or pining with famine, the raven is active and healthy, busily

employed in prowling for prey, or sporting in the coldest atmosphere. As the heats at the line do not oppress him, so he bears the cold of the polar countries with equal indifference. He is sometimes indeed seen milk white ; and this may probably be the effect of the rigorous climates of the north. It is most likely that this change is wrought upon him as upon most other animals in that part of the world, where their robes, particularly in winter, assume the colour of the country they inhabit. As in old age, when the natural heat decays, the hair grows gray, and at last white ; so among these animals the cold of the climate may produce a similar languishment of colour, and may shut up those pores that conveyed the tincturing fluids to the extremest parts of the body.

However this may be, white ravens are often shewn among us, which I have heard some say, are rendered thus by art ; and this we could readily suppose, if they were as easily changed in their colour, as they are altered in their habits and dispositions. A raven may be reclaimed to almost every purpose to which birds can be converted. He may be trained up for fowling like a hawk ; he may be taught to fetch and carry like a spaniel ; he may be taught to speak like a parrot ; but the most extraordinary of all is, that he can be taught to sing like a man. I have heard a raven sing the Black Joke with great distinctness, truth, and humour.*

Indeed, when the raven is taken as a domestic, he has many qualities that render him extremely amusing. Busy, inquisitive, and impudent, he goes every where ; affronts and drives off the dogs, plays his pranks on the poultry, and is particularly assiduous in cultivating the good-will of the cook-maid, who seems to be the favourite of the family. But then, with the amusing qualities of a favourite, he often also has the vices and defects. He is a glutton by nature, and a thief by habit. He does not confine himself to petty depredations on the pantry or the

* At the seat of the earl of Aylesbury, in Wiltshire, a tame raven, that had been taught to speak, used to ramble about in the park ; there he was commonly attended and beset with crows, rooks, and others of his inquisitive tribe. When a considerable number of these were collected round him, he would lift up his head, and with a hoarse and hollow voice shout out the word Holla ! This would instantly put to flight and disperse his sable brethren ; while the raven seemed to enjoy the fright he had occasioned.

larder ; he soars at more magnificent plunder ; at spoils that he can neither exhibit nor enjoy ; but which, like a miser, he rests satisfied with having the satisfaction of sometimes visiting and contemplating in secret. A piece of money, a tea-spoon, or a ring, are always tempting baits to his avarice ; these he will sily seize upon, and, if not watched, will carry to his favourite hole.

In his wild state, the raven is an active and greedy plunderer. Nothing comes amiss to him ; whether his prey be living or long dead it is all the same, he falls to with a voracious appetite ; and, when he has gorged himself, flies to acquaint his fellows, that they may participate of the spoil. If the carcase be already in the possession of some more powerful animal, a wolf, a fox, or a dog, the raven sits at a little distance, content to continue a humble spectator till they have done. If in his flights he perceives no hopes of carrion, and his scent is so exquisite that he can smell it at a vast distance, he then contents himself with more unsavoury food, fruits, insects, and the accidental dessert of a dunghill.

This bird chiefly builds its nests in trees, and lays five or six eggs of a pale green colour, marked with small brownish spots. They live sometimes in pairs, and sometimes they frequent, in great numbers, the neighbourhood of populous cities, where they are useful in devouring those carcases that would otherwise putrefy and infect the air. They build in high trees or old towers, in the beginning of March with us in England, and sometimes sooner, as the spring is more or less advanced for the season. But it is not always near towns that they fix their retreats ; they often build in unfrequented places, and drive all other birds from their vicinity. They will not permit even their young to keep in the same district, but drive them off when they are sufficiently able to shift for themselves. Martin, in his description of the Western Isles, avers, that there are three little islands among the number, which are occupied by a pair of ravens each, that drive off all other birds with great cries and impetuosity.

Notwithstanding the injury these birds do in picking out the eyes of sheep and lambs, when they find them sick and helpless, a vulgar respect is paid them, as being the birds that fed the prophet Elijah in the wilderness. This pre-

possession in favour of the raven is of very ancient date, as the Romans themselves, who thought the bird ominous, paid it, from motives of fear, the most profound veneration. One of these that had been kept in the temple of Castor, as Pliny informs us, flew down into the shop of a tailor, who took much delight in the visits of his new acquaintance. He taught the bird several tricks; but particularly to pronounce the names of the emperor Tiberius, and the whole royal family. The tailor was beginning to grow rich by those who came to see this wonderful raven, till an envious neighbour, displeased at the tailor's success, killed the bird, and deprived the tailor of his future hopes of fortune. The Romans, however, took the poor tailor's part; they punished the man who offered the injury, and gave the raven all the honours of a magnificent interment.

Birds in general live longer than quadrupeds; and the raven is said to be one of the most long-lived of the number. Hesiod asserts, that a raven will live nine times as long as a man; but though this is fabulous, it is certain that some of them have been known to live near a hundred years. This animal seems possessed of those qualities that generally produce longevity, a good appetite, and great exercise. In clear weather, the ravens fly in pairs to a great height, making a deep loud noise, different from that of their usual croaking.

The carrion-crow resembles the raven in its appetites, its laying, and manner of bringing up its young. It only differs in being less bold, less docile, and less favoured by mankind.

The rook leads the way in another, but a more harmless train, that have no carnivorous appetites, but only feed upon insects and corn. The Royston crow is about the size of the two former. The breast, belly, back, and upper part of the neck, being of a pale ash colour; the head and wings glossed over with a fine blue. He is a bird of passage, visiting this kingdom in the beginning of winter, and leaving it in the spring. He breeds, however, in different parts of the British dominions; and his nest is common enough in trees in Ireland. The jackdaw is black, like all the former, but ash-coloured on the breast and belly. He is not above the size of a pigeon. He is docile and loquacious. His head is large for the size of his body, which,

as has been remarked, argues him ingenious and crafty. He builds in steeples, old castles, and high rocks, laying five or six eggs in a season. The Cornish chough is like a jackdaw, but bigger, and almost the size of a crow. The bill, feet, and legs, are long like those of a jackdaw, but of a red colour; and the plumage is black all over. It frequents rocks, old castles, and churches by the sea side, like the daw; and with the same noisy assiduity. It is only seen along the western coasts of England. These are birds very similar in their manners, feeding on grain and insects, living in society, and often suffering general castigation from the flock for the good of the community.

The rook, as is well known, builds in woods and forests in the neighbourhood of man, and sometimes makes choice of groves in the very midst of cities for the place of its retreat and security. In these it establishes a kind of legal constitution, by which all intruders are excluded from coming to live among them, and none suffered to build but acknowledged natives of the place. I have often amused myself with observing their plan of policy from my window in the Temple, that looks upon a grove where they have made a colony in the midst of the city. At the commencement of spring, the rookery, which during the continuance of winter seemed to have been deserted, or only guarded by about five or six, like old soldiers in a garrison, now begins to be once more frequented; and in a short time all the bustle and hurry of business is fairly commenced. Where these numbers resided during the winter is not easy to guess; perhaps in the trees of hedge-rows, to be nearer their food. In spring, however, they cultivate their native trees; and, in the places where they were themselves hatched, they prepare to propagate a future progeny.

They keep together in pairs; and when the offices of courtship are over, they prepare for making their nests and laying. The old inhabitants of the place are already provided; the nest which served them for years before, with a little trimming and dressing, will serve very well again; the difficulty of nestling lies only upon the young ones, who have no nest, and must therefore get up one as well as they can. But not only the materials are wanting, but also the place in which to fix it. Every part of a tree will not do for this purpose, as some branches may not be sufficiently

forked ; others may not be sufficiently strong ; and still others may be too much exposed to the rockings of the wind. The male and female upon this occasion are, for some days, seen examining all the trees of the grove very attentively ; and when they have fixed upon a branch that seems fit for their purpose, they continue to sit upon and observe it very sedulously for two or three days longer. The place being thus determined upon, they begin to gather the materials for their nest ; such as sticks and fibrous roots, which they regularly dispose in the most substantial manner. But here a new and unexpected obstacle arises. It often happens that the young couple have made choice of a place too near the mansion of an older pair, who do not choose to be incommoded by such troublesome neighbours. A quarrel therefore instantly ensues, in which the old ones are always victorious.

The young couple, thus expelled, are obliged again to go through the fatigues of deliberating, examining, and choosing ; and having taken care to keep their due distance, the nest begins again, and their industry deserves commendation. But their alacrity is often too great in the beginning ; they soon grow weary of bringing the materials of their nest from distant places ; and they very easily perceive that sticks may be provided nearer home, with less honesty, indeed, but some degree of address. Away they go, therefore, to pilfer, as fast as they can ; and whenever they see a nest unguarded, they take care to rob it of the very choicest sticks of which it is composed. But these thefts never go unpunished ; and probably upon complaint being made there is a general punishment inflicted. I have seen eight or ten rooks come upon such occasions, and, setting upon the new nest of the young couple all at once, tear it in pieces in a moment.

At length, therefore, the young pair find the necessity of going more regularly and honestly to work. While one flies to fetch the materials, the other sits upon the tree to guard it ; and thus in the space of three or four days, with a skirmish now and then between, the pair have fitted up a commodious nest, composed of sticks without, and of fibrous roots and long grass within. From the instant the female begins to lay, all hostilities are at an end ; not one of the whole grove, that a little before treated her so rudely, will now venture to molest her ; so that she brings

forth her brood with patient tranquillity. Such is the severity with which even native rooks are treated by each other ; but if a foreign rook should attempt to make himself a denizen of their society, he would meet with no favour ; the whole grove would at once be up in arms against him, and expel him without mercy.

In some countries these birds are considered as a benefit, in others as a nuisance : their chief food is the worm of the dor-beetle, and corn ; thus they may be said to do as much service by destroying that noxious insect, as they do injury by consuming the produce of the husbandman's industry.

To this tribe of the crow-kind, some foreign sorts might be added : I will take notice only of one, which, from the extraordinary size and fashion of its bill, must not be passed in silence. This is the Calao, or horned Indian raven, which exceeds the common raven in size, and habits of depredation. But what he differs in from all other birds is the beak, which by its length and curvature at the end, appears designed for rapine ; but then it has a kind of horn standing out from the top, which looks somewhat like a second bill, and gives this bird, otherwise fierce and ugly, a very formidable appearance. The horn springs out of the forehead, and grows to the upper part of the bill, being of great bulk ; so that near the forehead it is four inches broad, not unlike the horn of the rhinoceros, but more crooked at the tip. Were the body of the bird answerable in size to the head, the calao would exceed in magnitude even the vulture or the eagle. But the head and beak are out of all proportion, the body being not much larger than that of a hen. Yet even here there are varieties ; for in such of those birds as come from different parts of Africa, the body is proportionable to the beak ; in such as come from the Molucca Islands, the beak bears no proportion to the body. Of what use this extraordinary excrescence is to the bird, is not easy to determine ; it lives, like others of its kind, upon carrion, and seldom has a living enemy to cope with : Nature seems to sport in the production of many animals, as if she were willing to exhibit instances as well of variety as economy in their formation.

CHAP. III.

OF THE MAGPIE, AND ITS AFFINITIES.

THERE are such a variety of birds that may be distributed under this head, that we must not expect very precise ideas of any. To have a straight strong bill, legs formed for hopping, a body of about the size of a magpie, and party-coloured plumage, are the only marks by which I must be contented to distinguish this numerous fantastic tribe, that add to the beauty, though not to the harmony, of our landscapes. In fact, their chattering every where disturbs the melody of the lesser warblers; and their noisy courtship not a little damps the song of the linnet and the nightingale.

However, we have very few of this kind in our woods compared to those in the neighbourhood of the line. There they not only paint the scene with the beauty and the variety of their plumage, but stun the ear with their vociferation. In those luxurious forests, the singing-birds are scarcely ever heard, but a hundred varieties of the pie, the jay, the roller, the chatterer, and the toucan, are continually in motion, and with their illusive mockeries disturb or divert the spectator, as he happens to be disposed.

The Magpie is the chief of this kind with us, and is too well known to need a description. Indeed, were its other accomplishments equal to its beauty, few birds could be put in competition. Its black, its white, its green, and purple, with the rich and gilded combination of the glosses on its tail, are as fine as any that adorn the most beautiful of the feathered tribe. But it has too many of the qualities of a bean to depreciate these natural perfections: vain, restless, loud, and quarrelsome, it is an unwelcome intruder every where; and never misses an opportunity, when it finds one, of doing mischief.

The magpie bears a great resemblance to the butcher-bird in its bill, which has a sharp process near the end of the upper chap, as well as in the shortness of its wings, and

the form of the tail; each feather shortening from the two middlemost. But it agrees still more in its food, living not only upon worms and insects, but also upon small birds when they can be seized. A wounded lark, or a young chicken separated from the hen, are sure plunder; and the magpie will even sometimes set upon and strike a black-bird.

The same insolence prompts it to tease the largest animals, when its insults can be offered with security. They often are seen perched upon the back of an ox or a sheep, pecking up the insects to be found there, chattering, and tormenting the poor animal at the same time, and stretching out their necks for combat, if the beast turns its head backward to reprehend him. They seek out also the nests of birds: and, if the parent escapes, the eggs make up for the deficiency: the thrush and the blackbird are but too frequently robbed by this assassin, and this, in some measure, causes their scarcity.

No food seems to come amiss to this bird; it shares with ravens in their carrion, with rooks in their grain, and with the cuckoo in birds' eggs: but it seems possessed of a providence seldom usual with gluttons; for when it is satisfied for the present, it lays up the remainder of the feast for another occasion. It will even in a tame state hide its food when it has done eating, and after a time return to the secret hoard with renewed appetite and vociferation.

In all its habits it discovers a degree of instinct unusual to other birds. Its nest is not less remarkable for the manner in which it is composed, than for the place the magpie takes to build it in. The nest is usually placed conspicuous enough, either in the middle of some hawthorn-bush, or on the top of some high tree. The place, however, is always found difficult of access; for the tree pitched upon usually grows in some thick hedge-row fenced by brambles at the root; or sometimes one of the higher bushes is fixed upon for the purpose. When the place is thus chosen as inaccessible as possible to men, the next care is to fence the nest above so as to defend it from all the various enemies of air. The kite, the crow, and the sparrow-hawk, are to be guarded against; as their nests have been sometimes plundered by the magpie, so it is reasonably feared that they will take the first opportunity to retaliate. To

prevent this, the magpie's nest is built with surprising labour and ingenuity.

The body of the nest is composed of hawthorn branches, the thorns sticking outward, but well united together by their mutual insertions. Within it is lined with fibrous roots, wool, and long grass, and then nicely plastered all round with mud and clay. The body of the nest being thus made firm and commodious, the next work is to make the canopy which is to defend it above. This is composed of the sharpest thorns, wove together in such a manner as to deny all entrance except at the door, which is just large enough to permit egress and regress to the owners. In this fortress the male and female hatch and bring up their brood with security, sheltered from all attacks but those of the climbing school-boy, who often finds his torn and bloody hands too dear a price for the eggs or the young ones. The magpie lays six or seven eggs, of a pale green colour, spotted with brown.

This bird, in its domestic state, preserves its natural character with strict propriety. The same noisy mischievous habits attend it to the cage that marked it in the woods; and being more cunning, so it is also a more docile bird than any other taken into keeping. Those who are desirous of teaching it to speak have a foolish custom of cutting its tongue, which only puts the poor animal to pain, without improving its speech in the smallest degree. Its speaking is sometimes very distinct; but its sounds are too thin and sharp to be an exact imitation of the human voice, which the hoarse raven and parrot can counterfeit more exactly.

To this tribe we may refer the jay, which is one of the most beautiful of the British birds. The forehead is white, streaked with black; the head is covered with very long feathers, which it can erect into a crest at pleasure; the whole neck, back, breast, and belly, are of a faint purple, dashed with gray; the wings are most beautifully barred with a lovely blue, black, and white; the tail is black, and the feet of a pale brown. Like the magpie, it feeds upon fruits, will kill small birds, and is extremely docile.

The Chatterer also, which is a native of Germany, may be placed in this rank; and is somewhat less than the former. It is variegated with a beautiful mixture of colours;

red, ash-colour, chesnut, and yellow : but what distinguishes it from all other birds, are the horny appendages from the tips of seven of the lesser quill feathers, which stand bare of beards, and have the colour and gloss of the best red sealing-wax.

The Roller is not less beautiful than any of the former. The breast and belly are blue ; the head green ; and the wings variegated with blue, black, and white. But it may be distinguished from all others by a sort of naked tubercles or warts near the eyes, which still farther contribute to increase its beauty.

To this class may be added a numerous list from all the tropical forests of the east and west ; where the birds are remarkable for discordant voices and brilliant plumage. I will fix only upon one, which is the most singular of all the feathered creation. This is the Toucan, a bird of the pie kind, whose bill is nearly as large as the rest of its whole body.

Of this extraordinary bird there are four or five varieties. I will only describe the red-beaked toucan ; and as the figure of this bird makes the principal part of its history, I will follow Edwards through all the minutiae of its singular conformation. It is about the size of, and shaped like, a jackdaw, with a large head to support its monstrous bill ; this bill, from the angles of the mouth to its point, is six inches and a half ; and its breadth, in the thickest part, is a little more than two. Its thickness near the head, is one inch and a quarter ; and it is a little rounded along the top of the upper chap, the under side being round also ; the whole of the bill is extremely slight, and a little thicker than parchment. The upper chap is of a bright yellow, except on each side, which is of a fine scarlet colour ; as is also the lower chap, except at the base, which is purple. Between the head and the bill there is a black line of separation all round the base of the bill ; in the upper part of which the nostrils are placed, and are almost covered with feathers ; which has occasioned some writers to say, that the toucan has no nostrils. Round the eyes, on each side of the head, is a space of bluish skin, void of feathers, above which the head is black, except a white spot on each side joining to the base of the upper chap. The hinder part of the neck ; the back, wings, tail, belly, and thighs,

are black. The under side of the head, throat, and the beginning of the breast, are white. Between the white on the breast, and the black on the belly, is a space of red feathers, in the form of a new moon, with its horns upwards. The legs, feet, and claws, are of an ash-colour; and the toes stand like those of the parrot, two before, and two behind.

It is reported, by travellers, that this bird, though furnished with so formidable a beak, is harmless and gentle; being so easily made tame, as to sit and hatch its young in houses. It feeds chiefly upon pepper, which it devours very greedily, gorging itself in such a manner that it voids it crude and unconcocted. This, however, is no objection to the natives from using it again; they even prefer it before that pepper which is fresh gathered from the tree: and seem persuaded that the strength and heat of the pepper is qualified by the bird, and that all its noxious qualities are thus exhausted.

Whatever be the truth of this report, nothing is more certain than that the toucan lives only upon a vegetable diet; and in a domestic state, to which it is frequently brought in the warm countries where it is bred, it is seen to prefer such food to all other. Pozzo, who bred one tame, asserts, that it leaped up and down, wagged the tail, and cried with a voice resembling that of a magpie. It fed upon the same things that parrots do; but was most greedy of grapes, which, being plucked off one by one, and thrown into the air, it would most dexterously catch before they fell to the ground. Its bill, he adds, was hollow, and upon that account very light, so that it had but little strength in so apparently formidable a weapon; nor could it peck or strike smartly therewith. But its tongue seemed to assist the efforts of this unwieldy machine; it was long, thin, and flat, not unlike one of the feathers on the neck of a dunghill-cock; this it moved up and down, and often extended five or six inches from the bill. It was of a flesh colour, and very remarkably fringed on each side with very small filaments, exactly resembling a feather.

It is probable that this long tongue has greater strength than the thin hollow beak that contains it. It is likely that the beak is only a kind of sheath for this peculiar instrument,

used by the toucan, not only in making itself a nest, but also in obtaining its provision. Nothing is more certain, than that this bird builds its nest in holes of trees, which have been previously scooped out for this purpose; and it is not very likely that so feeble a bill could be very serviceable in working upon such hard materials.

Be this as it will, there is no bird secures its young better from external injury than the toucan. It has not only birds, men, and serpents, to guard against, but a numerous tribe of monkeys, still more prying, mischievous, and hungry, than all the rest. The toucan, however, scoops out its nest in the hollow of some trees, leaving only a hole large enough to go in and out at. There it sits, with its great beak, guarding the entrance, and if the monkey ventures to offer a visit of curiosity, the toucan gives him such a welcome, that he presently thinks proper to pack off, and is glad to escape with safety.

This bird is only found in the warm climates of South America, where it is in great request, both for the delicacy of its flesh, which is tender and nourishing, and for the beauty of its plumage, particularly the feathers of the breast. The skin of this part the Indians pluck off, and, when dry, glue to their cheeks; and this they consider as an irresistible addition to their beauty.

CHAP. IV.

OF THE WOODPECKER, AND ITS AFFINITIES.

WE now come to the numerous tribe of Woodpeckers; a class easily distinguished from all others, both for their peculiar formation, their method of procuring food, and their manner of providing a place of safety for their young. Indeed, no other class of birds seems more immediately formed for the method of life they pursue, being fitted by nature, at all points, for the peculiarity of their condition. They live chiefly upon the insects contained in the body of trees; and for this purpose are furnished with a straight, hard, strong, angular, and sharp bill, made for piercing and boring. They

have a tongue of a very great length; round, ending in a sharp, stiff, bony thorn, dentated on each side, to strike ants and insects when dislodged from their cells. Their legs are short and strong, for the purposes of climbing. Their toes stand two forward, and two backward; which is particularly serviceable in holding by the branches of the trees. They have hard stiff tails to lean upon when climbing. They feed only upon insects, and want that intestine which anatomists call the *cæcum*; a circumstance peculiar to this tribe only.

Of this bird there are many kinds, and many varieties in each kind. They form large colonies in the forests of every part of the world. They differ in size, colour, and appearance; and agree only in the marks above mentioned, or in those habits which result from so peculiar a conformation. Instead, therefore, of descending into a minute discrimination of every species, let us take one for a pattern, to which all the rest will be found to bear the strongest affinity. Words can but feebly describe the plumage of a bird; but it is the province of history to enter into a detail of every animal's pursuits and occupations..

The Green Woodspite, or Woodpecker is called the *rain-fowl* in some parts of the country; because, when it makes a greater noise than ordinary, it is supposed to foretel rain. It is about the size of a jay; the throat, breast, and belly, are of a pale greenish colour; and the back, neck, and covert feathers of the wings, are green. But the tongue of this little animal makes its most distinguished characteristic, as it serves for its support and defence. As was said above, the woodpecker feeds upon insects; and particularly on those which are lodged in the body of hollow or of rotting trees. The tongue is its instrument for killing and procuring this food; which cannot be found in great plenty. This is round, ending in a stiff, sharp, bony tip, dentated on both sides, like the beard of an arrow; and this it can dart out three or four inches from the bill, and draw in again at pleasure. Its prey is thus transfixed, and drawn into the bill, which, when swallowed, the dart is again launched at fresh game. Nothing has employed the attention of the curious in this part of anatomy, more than the contrivance by which the tongue of this bird performs its functions with such great celerity. The tongue is drawn

back into the bill by the help of two small round cartilages, fastened into the forementioned bony tip, and running along the length of the tongue. These cartilages, from the root of the tongue, take a circuit beyond the ears; and being reflected backwards to the crown of the head, make a large bow. The muscular spongy flesh of the tongue encloses these cartilages, like a sheath; and is so made that it may be extended or contracted like a worm. The cartilages indeed have muscles accompanying them along their whole length backwards.—But there is still another contrivance; for there is a broad muscle joining the cartilages to the bones of the skull, which, by contracting or dilating, forces the cartilages forward through the tongue, and then forces the tongue and all through the bill, to be employed for the animal's preservation in piercing its prey.

Such is the instrument with which this bird is provided; and this the manner in which this instrument is employed. When a woodpecker, by its natural sagacity, finds out a rotten hollow tree, where there are worms, ant's eggs, or insects, it immediately prepares for its operations. Resting by its strong claws, and leaning on the thick feathers of its tail, it begins to bore with its sharp strong beak, until it discloses the whole internal habitation. Upon this, either through pleasure at the sight of its prey, or with a desire to alarm the insect colony, it sends forth a loud cry, which throws terror and confusion into the whole insect tribe. They creep hither and thither, seeking for safety; while the bird luxuriously feasts upon them at leisure, darting its tongue with unerring certainty, and devouring the whole brood.

The woodpecker, however, does not confine its depredations solely to trees, but sometimes lights upon the ground, to try its fortune at an ant-hill. It is not so secure of prey there as in the former case, although the numbers are much greater. They lie generally too deep for the bird to come at them; and it is obliged to make up by stratagem the defect of power. The woodpecker first goes to their hills, which it pecks, in order to call them abroad; it then thrusts out its long red tongue, which being like a worm, and resembling their usual prey, the ants come out to settle upon, in great numbers;

however, the bird watching the properest opportunity, withdraws its tongue at a jerk, and devours the devourers. This stratagem it continues till it has alarmed their fears ; or till it is quite satisfied.

As the Woodpecker is obliged to make holes in trees to procure food, so is it also to make cavities still larger to form its nest, and to lay in. This is performed, as usual, with the bill ; although some have affirmed that the animal uses its tongue as a gimblet to bore with. But this is a mistake ; and those that are curious, may often hear the noise of the bill making its way in large woods and forests. The woodpecker chooses, however, for this purpose, trees that are decayed, or wood that is soft, like beech, elm, and poplar. In these, with very little trouble, it can make holes as exactly round as a mathematician could with compasses. One of these holes the bird generally chooses for its own use, to nestle and bring up its young in ; but as they are easily made, it is delicate in its choice, and often makes twenty before one is found fit to give entire satisfaction. Of those which it has made and deserted, other birds, not so good borers, and less delicate in their choice, take possession. The jay and the starling lay their eggs in these holes ; and bats are now and then found in peaceable possession. Boys sometimes have thrust in their hands with certain hopes of plucking out a bird's egg ; but to their great mortification, have had their fingers bitten by a bat at the bottom.

The woodpecker takes no care to line its nest with feathers or straw ; its eggs are deposited in the hole, without any thing to keep them warm, except the heat of the parent's body. Their number is generally five, or six ; always white, oblong, and of a middle size. When the young are excluded, and before they leave the nest, they are adorned with a scarlet plumage under the throat, which adds to their beauty.

In our climate, this bird is contented with such a wainscot habitation as has been described for its young ; but in the warmer regions of Guinea and Brazil, they take a very different method to protect and hatch their nascent progeny. A traveller who walks into the forests of those countries, among the first strange objects that excite curiosity, is struck with the multitude of bird's nests hanging at the

extremity of almost every branch. Many other kinds of birds build in this manner, but the chief of them are of the woodpecker kind; and indeed there is not, in the whole history of nature, a more singular instance of the sagacity of those little animals in protecting themselves against such enemies as they have most occasion to fear. In cultivated countries, a great part of the caution of the feathered tribe is to hide or defend their nests from the invasions of man; as he is their most dreaded enemy. But in the depth of those remote and solitary forests, where man is but seldom seen, the little bird has nothing to apprehend from man. The parent is careless how much the nest is exposed to general notice; satisfied if it be out of the reach of those rapacious creatures that live by robbery and surprise. If the monkey or the snake can be guarded against, the bird has no other enemies to fear; for this purpose its nest is built upon the depending points of the most outward branches of a tall tree, such as the banana, or the plantain. On one of those immense trees, is seen the most various and the most inimical assemblage of creatures that can be imagined. The top is inhabited by monkeys of some particular tribe, that drive off all others; lower down twine about the great trunk numbers of the larger snakes, patiently waiting till some unwary animal comes within the sphere of their activity, and at the edges of the tree hang these artificial nests, in great abundance, inhabited by birds of the most delightful plumage.

The nest is usually formed in this manner: When the time of incubation approaches, they fly busily about, in quest of a kind of moss, called by the English inhabitants of those countries, *old man's beard*. It is a fibrous substance, and not very unlike hair, which bears being moulded into any form, and suffers being glued together. This therefore the little woodpecker, called by the natives of Brazil, the *guiratemga*, first glues, by some viscous substance gathered in the forest, to the extremest branch of a tree; then building downward, and still adding fresh materials to those already procured, a nest is formed, that depends, like a pouch, from the point of the branch: the hole to enter at, is on the side; and all the interior parts are lined with the finer fibres of the same substance, which compose the whole.

Such is the general contrivance of these hanging nests ; which are made, by some other birds, with still superior art. A little bird of the Grosbeak kind, in the Philippine islands, makes its nest in such a manner that there is no opening but from the bottom. At the bottom the bird enters, and goes up through a funnel like a chimney, till it comes to the real door of the nest, which lies on one side, and only opens into this funnel.*

Some birds glue their nest to the leaf of the banana-tree, which makes two sides of their little habitation ; while the other two are artificially composed by their own industry. But these, and all of the kind, are built with the same precautions to guard the young against the depredations of monkeys and serpents, which abound in every tree. The nest hangs there before the spoilers, a tempting object, which they can only gaze upon, while the bird flies in and out, without danger or molestation from so formidable a vicinity.

CHAP. V.

OF THE BIRD OF PARADISE, AND ITS VARIETIES.

THERE are few birds that have more deceived and puzzled the learned than this. Some have described it as an inhabitant of the air, living only upon the dew of heaven, and never resting below ; others have acquiesced in the latter part of its history, but have given it flying insects to feed on. Some have asserted that it was without feet, and others have ranked it among the birds of prey.

The great beauty of this bird's plumage, and the deformity of its legs, seem to have given rise to most of these erroneous reports. The native savages of the Molucca

* This bird constructs a curious nest with the long fibres of plants and grass, and suspends it by a kind of cord, nearly half an ell long, from the end of a slender branch of a tree, that it may be inaccessible to snakes, and secure from the intrusion of the numerous monkeys which inhabit those regions. At the end of this cord, is a gourd-shaped nest, divided into three apartments ; the first of which is occupied by the male, the second by the female, and the third contains the young ; and in the first apartment, where the male keeps watch, is placed on one side a little tough clay, and on the top of this clay is fixed a glow-worm, to afford its inhabitants light in the night.

Islands, of which it is an inhabitant, were very little studious of natural history; and, perceiving the inclination the Europeans had for this beautiful bird, carefully cut off its legs before they brought it to market; thus concealing its greatest deformity, they considered themselves entitled to rise in their demands when they offered it for sale. One deceit led on to another; the buyer finding the bird without legs, naturally inquired after them; and the seller as naturally began to assert that it had none. Thus far the European was imposed upon by others; in all the rest he imposed upon himself. Seeing so beautiful a bird without legs, he concluded that it could live only in air, where legs were unnecessary. The extraordinary splendour of its plumage assisted this deception; and, as it had heavenly beauty, so it was asserted to have a heavenly residence. From thence its name, and all the false reports that have been propagated concerning it.

Error, however, is short-lived; and time has discovered that this bird not only has legs, but very large strong ones for its size. Credulity, when undeceived, runs into the opposite extreme; and soon after this harmless bird was branded with the character of being rapacious, of destroying all those of smaller size, and from the amazing rapidity of its flight, as qualified peculiarly for extensive rapine. The real history of this pretty animal is at present tolerably well known; and it is found to be as harmless as it is beautiful.

There are two kinds of the bird of Paradise; one about the size of a pigeon, which is more common; the other not much larger than a lark, which has been described more imperfectly. They are both sufficiently distinguished from all other birds, not only by the superior vivacity of their tints, but by the feathers of the tail, there being two long slender filaments growing from the upper part of the rump; these are longer than the bird's body, and bearded only at the end. By this mark the bird of Paradise may be easily known, but still more easily by its gaudy livery, which, being so very brilliant, demands to be minutely described.

This bird appears to the eye as large as a pigeon, though in reality the body is not much greater than that of a thrush. The tail, which is about six inches, is as long as

the body; the wings are large, compared with the bird's other dimensions. The head, the throat, and the neck, are of a pale gold colour. The base of the bill is surrounded by black feathers, as also the side of the head and throat, as soft as velvet, and changeable like those on the neck of a mallard. The hinder part of the head is of a shining green, mixed with gold. The body and wings are chiefly covered with beautiful brown, purple, and gold feathers. The uppermost part of the tail-feathers are of a pale yellow, and those under them white, and longer than the former; for which reason the hinder part of the tail appears to be all white. But what chiefly excites curiosity are, the two long naked feathers above mentioned, which spring from the upper part of the rump above the tail, and which are usually about three feet long. These are bearded only at the beginning and the end; the whole shaft, for about two feet nine inches, being of a deep black, while the feathered extremity is of a changeable colour, like the mallard's neck.

This bird, which for beauty exceeds all others of the pie kind, is a native of the Molucca Islands, but found in greatest numbers in that of Aro. There, in the delightful and spicy woods of the country, do these beautiful creatures fly in large flocks; so that the groves which produce the richest spices produce the finest birds also. The inhabitants themselves are not insensible of the pleasure these afford, and give them the name of God's birds, as being superior to all others that he has made. They live in large flocks, and at night generally perch upon the same tree. They are called by some, the *swallows of Ternate*, from their rapid flight, and from their being continually on the wing in pursuit of insects, their usual prey.

As the country where they are bred has its tempestuous season, when rains and thunders continually disturb the atmosphere, these birds are then but seldom seen. It is thought that they then fly to other countries, where their food appears in greater abundance; for, like swallows, they have their stated times of return. In the beginning of the month of August, they are seen in great numbers flying together; and, as the inhabitants would have us believe, following their king, who is distinguished from the rest by the lustre of his plumage, and that respect and

veneration which is paid him. In the evening they perch upon the highest trees of the forest, particularly one which bears a red berry, upon which they sometimes feed, when other food fails them. In what manner they breed, or what may be the number of their young, as yet remains for discovery.

The natives, who make a trade of killing and selling these birds to the Europeans, generally conceal themselves in the trees where they resort, and having covered themselves up from sight in a bower made of the branches, they shoot at the birds with reedy arrows; and, as they assert, if they happen to kill the king, they then have a good chance for killing the greatest part of the flock. The chief marks by which they know the king is by the ends of the feathers in his tail, which have eyes like those of a peacock. When they have taken a number of these birds, their usual method is to gut them, and cut off their legs; they then run a hot iron into the body, which dries up the internal moisture; and, filling the cavity with salts and spices, they sell them to the Europeans for a perfect trifle.

CHAP. VI.

THE CUCKOO, AND ITS VARIETIES.

FROM a bird of which many fables have been reported, we pass to another that has not given less scope to fabulous invention. The note of the cuckoo is known to all the world; the history and nature of the bird itself still remains in great obscurity. That it devours its parent, that it changes its nature with the season, and becomes a sparrow-hawk, were fables invented of this bird, and are now sufficiently refuted. But where it resides in winter, or how it provides for its supply during that season, still continues undiscovered.

This singular bird, which is somewhat less than a pigeon, shaped like a magpie, and of a grayish colour, is distinguished from all other birds by its round prominent nostrils. Having disappeared all the winter, it discovers itself in our country early in the spring, by its well-known call. Its note is heard earlier or later, as the season seems to be more or less forward, and the weather more or less

inviting. From the cheerful voice of this bird the farmer may be instructed in the real advancement of the year. The fallibility of human calendars is but too well known; but from this bird's note, the husbandman may be taught when to sow his most useful seeds, and to do such work as depends upon a certain temperature of the air. These feathered guides come to us heaven-taught, and point out the true commencement of the season.

The cuckoo, that was silent some time after its appearance, begins at first feebly; and at very distant intervals, to give its call, which, as the summer advances, improves both in its frequency and loudness. This is an invitation to courtship, and used only by the male, who sits generally perched upon some dead tree, or bare bough, and repeats his song, which he loses as soon as the genial season is over. His note is pleasant, though uniform; and, from an association of ideas, seldom occurs to the memory without reminding us of the sweets of summer. Custom too has affixed a more ludicrous association to this note; which, however, we that are bachelors need be in no pain about. This reproach seems to arise from this bird's making use of the bed or nest of another to deposit its own brood in.

However this may be, nothing is more certain than that the female makes no nest of her own. She repairs for that purpose to the nest of some other bird, generally the water-agtail or hedge-sparrow, and having devoured the eggs of the owner, lays her own in their place. She usually lays but one, which is speckled, and of the size of a black-bird's. As the fond foolish bird hatches with great assiduity, and, when excluded, finds no difference in the great ill-looking angeling from her own. To supply this voracious creature, the credulous nurse toils with unusual labour; not very sensible that she is feeding up an enemy to her race, and one of the most destructive robbers of her future progeny.

It was once doubted whether these birds were carnivorous; but Reaumur was at the pains of breeding up several, and found that they would not feed upon bread or corn; flesh and insects were their favourite nourishment. He found it a very difficult task to teach them to peck; he was obliged to feed them a full month after they

were grown as big as the mother. Insects, however, seemed to be their peculiar food when young; for they devoured flesh by a kind of constraint, as it was always put into their mouths; but meal-worm insects they flew to, and swallowed of their own accord most greedily. Indeed, their gluttony is not to be wondered at, when we consider the capacity of their stomach, which is enormous, and reaches from the breast-bone to the vent. It is partly membranous, partly muscular, and of a prodigious capacity; yet still they are not to be supposed as birds of prey, for they have neither the strength nor the courage. On the contrary, they are naturally weak and fearful, as appears by their flying from small birds, which every where pursue them. The young birds are brown, mixed with black; and in that state they have been described by some authors as old ones.

The cuckoo, when fledged and fitted for flight, follows its supposed parent but for a little time; its appetites for insect food increasing, as it finds no great chance for a supply in imitating its little instructor, it parts good friends, the step-child seldom offering any violence to its nurse. Nevertheless, all the little birds of the grove seem to consider the young cuckoo as an enemy, and revenge the cause of their kind by their repeated insults. They pursue it wherever it flies, and oblige it to take shelter in the thickest branches of some neighbouring tree. All the smaller birds form the train of its pursuers; but the wry-neck, in particular, is found the most active in the chase; and from thence it has been called by many, the cuckoo's attendant and provider. But it is very far from following with a friendly intention; it only pursues as an insulter, or a spy, to warn all its little companions of the cuckoo's depredations.

Such are the manners of this bird while it continues to reside, or to be seen amongst us. But early, at the approach of winter, it totally disappears, and its passage can be traced to no other country. Some suppose that it lies hid in hollow trees; and others that it passes into warmer climates. Which of these opinions is true is very uncertain, as there are no facts related on either side that can be totally relied on. To support the opinion that they remain torpid during the winter, at home, Willoughby

introduces the following story, which he delivers upon the credit of another. "The servants of a gentleman, in the country, having stocked up in one of their meadows some old, dry, rotten willows, thought proper, on a certain occasion, to carry them home. In heating a stove, two logs of this timber were put into the furnace beneath, and fire applied as usual. But soon, to the great surprise of the family, was heard the voice of a cuckoo, singing three times from under the stove. Wondering at so extraordinary a cry in winter time, the servants ran and drew the willow logs from the furnace, and in the midst of one of them saw something move; wherefore, taking an axe, they opened the hole, and thrusting in their hands, first they plucked out nothing but feathers; afterwards they got hold of a living animal; and this was the cuckoo that had waked so very opportunely for its own safety. It was, indeed," continues our historian, "brisk and lively, but wholly naked and bare of feathers, and without any winter provision in its hole. This cuckoo the boys kept two years afterwards alive in the stove; but whether it repaid them with a second song, the author of the tale has not thought fit to inform us."

The most probable opinion on this subject is, that as quails and woodcocks shift their habitations in winter, so also does the cuckoo; but to what country it retires, or whether it has ever been seen on its journey, are questions that I am wholly incapable of resolving.

Of this bird there are many kinds in various parts of the world, not only differing in their colours, but their size. Brisson makes not less than twenty-eight sorts of them; but what analogy they bear to our English cuckoo I will not take upon me to determine. He talks of one, particularly of Brazil, as making a most horrible noise in the forests; which, as it should seem, must be a very different note from that by which our bird is distinguished at home.

CHAP. VII.

OF THE PARROT, AND ITS AFFINITIES.

THE Parrot is the best known among us of all foreign birds, as it unites the greatest beauty with the greatest docility. Its voice also is more like a man's than that of any other; the raven is too hoarse, and the jay and magpie too shrill, to resemble the truth; the parrot's note is of the true pitch, and capable of a number of modulations that even some of our orators might wish in vain to imitate.

The ease with which this bird is taught to speak, and the great number of words which it is capable of repeating, are no less surprising. We are assured by a grave writer, that one of these was taught to repeat a whole sonnet from Petrarch; and that I may not be wanting in my instance, I have seen a parrot belonging to a distiller who had suffered pretty largely in his circumstances from an informer who lived opposite him, very ridiculously employed. This bird was taught to pronounce the ninth commandment, *Thou shalt not bear false witness against thy neighbour*, with a very clear, loud, articulate voice. The bird was generally placed in its cage over against the informer's house, and delighted the whole neighbourhood with its persevering exhortations.

Willoughby tells a story of a parrot, which is not so dull as those usually brought up when this bird's facility of talking happens to be the subject. "A parrot belonging to King Kenry VII. who then resided at Westminster, in his palace by the river Thames, had learned to talk many words from the passengers as they happened to take the water. One day, sporting on its perch, the poor bird fell into the water, at the same time crying out, as loud as he could, *A boat! twenty pounds for a boat!* A waterman, who happened to be near, hearing the cry, made to the place where the parrot was floating, and taking him up, restored him to the king. As it seems the bird was a favourite, the man insisted that he ought to have a reward rather equal to his

services than his trouble: and, as the parrot has cried twenty pounds, he said the king was bound in honour to grant it. The king at last agreed to leave it to the parrot's own determination, which the bird hearing, cried out, *Give the knave a groat.*"

The parrot, which is so common as a foreign bird with us, is equally so as an indigenous bird in the climates where it is produced. The forests swarm with them; and the rook is not better known with us than the parrot in almost every part of the East and West Indies. It is in vain that our naturalists have attempted to arrange the various species of this bird; new varieties daily offer to puzzle the system-maker, or to demonstrate the narrowness of his catalogues. Linnæus makes the number of its varieties amount to forty-seven; while Brisson doubles the number, and extends his catalogue to ninety-five. Perhaps even this list might be increased, where every accidental change of colour to be considered as constituting a new species. But, in fact, natural history gains little by these discoveries; and as its dominions are extended it becomes more barren. It is asserted, by sensible travellers, that the natives of Brazil can change the colour of a parrot's plumage by art. If this be true, and I am apt to believe the information, they can make new species at pleasure, and thus cut out endless work for our nomenclators at home.

Those who usually bring these birds over are content to make three or four distinctions, to which they give names; and with these distinctions I will content myself also. The large kind, which are of the size of a raven, are called *macaws*; the next size are simply called *parrots*; those which are entirely white, are called *loriès*; and the lesser size of all are called *parakeets*. The difference between even these is rather in size than any other peculiar conformation, as they are all formed alike, having toes, two before and two behind, for climbing and holding; strong hooked bills for breaking open nuts, and other hard substances, on which they feed; and loud harsh voices, by which they fill their native woods with clamour.

But there are further peculiarities in their conformation; and first, their toes are contrived in a singular manner, which appears when they walk or climb, and when they are eating. For the first purpose they stretch two of their

toes forward, and two backward; but when they take their meat, and bring it to their mouths with their foot, they dexterously and nimbly turn the greater hind toe forward, so as to take a firmer grasp of the nut or the fruit they are going to feed on, standing all the while upon the other leg. Nor even do they present their food in the usual manner; for other animals turn their meat inwards to the mouth; but these, in a seemingly awkward position, turn their meat outwards, and thus hold the hardest nuts, as if in one hand, till with their bills they break the shell, and extract the kernel.

The bill is fashioned with still greater peculiarities; for the upper chap, as well as the lower, are both moveable. In most other birds the upper chap is connected, and makes but one piece with the skull; but in these, and in one or two species of the feathered tribe more, the upper chap is connected to the bone of the head by a strong membrane, placed on each side, that lifts and depresses it at pleasure. By this contrivance they can open their bills the wider; which is not a little useful, as the upper chap is so hooked and so over-hanging, that, if the lower chap only had motion, they could scarcely gape sufficiently to take any thing in for their nourishment.

Such are the uses of the beak and the toes, when used separately; but they are often employed both together, when the bird is exercised in climbing. As these birds cannot readily hop from bough to bough, their legs not being adapted for that purpose, they use both the beak and the feet; first catching hold with the beak, as if with a hook, then drawing up the legs and fastening them, then advancing the head and beak again, and so putting forward the body and feet alternately, till they attain the height they aspire to.

The tongue of this bird somewhat resembles that of a man; for which reason some pretend that it is so well qualified to imitate the human speech; but the organs by which these sounds are articulated lie farther down in the throat, being performed by the great motion which the *os hyoides* has in these birds above others.

The parrot, though common enough in Europe, will not, however, breed here. The climate is too cold for its warm constitution; and though it bears our winter when arrived

at maturity, yet it always seems sensible of its rigour, and loses both its spirit and appetite during the colder part of the season. It then becomes torpid and inactive, and seems quite changed from that bustling loquacious animal which it appeared in its native forest, where it is almost ever upon the wing. Notwithstanding, the parrot lives even with us a considerable time, if it be properly attended to ; and, indeed, it must be owned, that it employs but too great a part of some peoples's attention.

The extreme sagacity and docility of the bird may plead as the best excuse for those who spend whole hours in teaching their parrots to speak ; and, indeed, the bird, on those occasions, seems the wisest animal of the two. It at first obstinately resists all instruction ; but seems to be won by perseverance, makes a few attempts to imitate the first sounds, and when it has got one word distinct, all the succeeding come with greater facility. The bird generally learns most in those families where the master or mistress have the least to do ; and becomes more expert, in proportion as its instructors are idly assiduous. In going through the towns of France some time since I could help observing how much plainer their parrots spoke than ours, and how very distinctly I understood their parrots speak French, when I could not understand our own, though they spoke my native language. I was at first for ascribing it to the different qualities of the two languages, and was for entering into an elaborate discussion on the vowels and consonants ; but a friend that was with me solved the difficulty at once, by assuring me that the French women scarcely did any thing else the whole day than sit and instruct their feathered pupils ; and that the birds were thus distinct in their lessons in consequence of continual schooling.

The parrots of France are certainly very expert, but nothing to those of the Brazils, where the education of a parrot is considered as a very serious affair. The history of Prince Maurice's parrot, given us by Mr. Locke, is too well known to be repeated here ; but Clusius assures us that the parrots of that country are the most sensible and cunning of all animals not endued with reason. The great parrot, called the *aicurous*, the head of which is adorned with yellow, red, and violet, the body green, the ends of the wings red,

the feathers of the tail long and yellow ; this bird, he asserts, which is seldom brought into Europe, is a prodigy of understanding. " A certain Brazillian woman, that lived in a village two miles distant from the island on which we resided, had a parrot of this kind which was the wonder of the place. It seemed endued with such understanding as to discern and comprehend whatever she said to it. As we sometimes used to pass by that women's house, she used to call upon us to stop, promising, if we gave her a comb, or a looking-glass, that she would make her parrot sing and dance to entertain us. If we agreed to her request, as soon as she had pronounced some words to the bird, it began not only to leap and skip on the perch on which it stood, but also to talk and to whistle, and imitate the shoutings and exclamations of the Brazilians when they prepare for battle. In brief, when it came into the woman's head to bid it sing, it sang ; to dance, it danced. But if, contrary to our promise, we refused to give the woman the little present agreed on, the parrot seemed to sympathize in her resentment, and was silent and immoveable ; neither could we, by any means, provoke it to move either foot or tongue."

This sagacity, which parrots shew in a domestic state, seems also natural to them in their native residence among the woods. They live together in flocks, and mutually assist each other against other animals, either by their courage or their notes of warning. They generally breed in hollow trees, where they make a round hole, and do not line their nests within. If they find any part of a tree beginning to rot from the breaking off of a branch, or any such accident, this they take care to scoop, and to make the hole sufficiently wide and convenient ; but it sometimes happens that they are content with the hole which a woodpecker has wrought out with greater ease before them ; and in this they prepare to hatch and bring up their young.

They lay two or three eggs ; and probably the smaller kind may lay more ; for it is a rule that universally holds through nature, that the smallest animals are always the most prolific ; for being, from their natural weakness, more subject to devastation, Nature finds it necessary to replenish the species by superior fecundity. In general, however, the

number of their eggs is stinted to two, like those of the pigeon, and they are about the same size. They are always marked with little specks, like those of a partridge; and some travellers assure us, that they are always found in the trunks of the tallest, straightest, and the largest trees. The natives of those countries, who have little else to do, are very assiduous in spying out the places where the parrot is seen to nestle, and generally come with great joy to inform the Europeans, if there be any, of the discovery. As those birds have always the greatest docility that are taken young, such a nest is often considered as worth taking some trouble to be possessed of; and, for this purpose, the usual method of coming at the young is, by cutting down the tree. In the fall of the tree it often happens that the young parrots are killed; but if one of them survives the shock, it is considered as a sufficient recompence.

Such is the avidity with which these birds are sought when young; for it is known they always speak best when their ear has not been anticipated by the harsh notes of the wild ones. But as the natives are not able upon all occasions to supply the demand for young ones, they are contented to take the old; and for that purpose shoot them in the woods with heavy arrows, headed with cotton, which knock down the bird without killing it. The parrots thus stunned are carried home: some die, but others recover, and, by kind usage and plentiful food, become talkative and noisy.

But it is not for the sake of their conversation alone that the parrot is sought after among the savages; for though some of them are but tough and ill-tasted, yet there are other sorts, particularly of the small parakeet, tribe, that are very delicate food. In general it obtains, that whatever fruit or grain these birds mostly feed upon, their flesh partakes of the flavour, and becomes good or ill-tasted, according to the quality of their particular diet. When the guava is ripe, they are at that season fat and tender; if they feed upon the seed of the acajou, their flesh contracts an agreeable flavour of garlic; if they feed upon the seed of the spicy trees, their flesh then tastes of cloves and cinnamon; while, on the contrary, it is insupportably bitter if the berries they feed on are of that quality. The seed of the cotton-tree intoxicates them in the same manner

as wine does man; and even wine itself is drunk by parrots, as Aristotle assures us, by which they are thus rendered more talkative and amusing. But of all food, they are fondest of the carthamus, or bastard saffron; which, though strongly purgative to man, agrees perfectly with their constitution, and fattens them in a very short time.

Of the parakeet kind in Brazil, Labat assures us, that they are the most beautiful in their plumage, and the most talkative birds in nature. They are very tame, and appear fond of mankind; they seem pleased with holding parley with him; they never have done; but while he continues to talk, answer him, and appear resolved to have the last word: but they are possessed of another quality, which is sufficient to put an end to this association; their flesh is the most delicate imaginable, and highly esteemed by those who are fonder of indulging their appetites than their ears. The fowler walks into the woods, where they keep in abundance, but as they are green, and exactly the colour of the leaves among which they sit, he only hears their prattle, without being able to see a single bird; he looks round him, sensible that his game is within gun-shot in abundance, but is mortified to the last degree that it is impossible to see them. Unfortunately for these little animals, they are restless, and ever on the wing, so that in flying from one tree to another, he has but too frequent opportunities of destroying them; for as soon as they have stripped the tree on which they sat of all its berries; some one of them flies off to another; and, if that be found fit for the purpose, it gives a loud call, which all the rest resort to. That is the opportunity the fowler has long been waiting for; he fires in among the flock, while they are yet on the wing; and he seldom fails of bringing down a part of them. But it is singular enough to see them when they find their companions fallen. They set up a loud outcry, as if they were chiding their destroyer, and do not cease till they see him preparing for a second charge.

But though there are so many motives for destroying these beautiful birds, they are in very great plenty; and in some countries on the coast of Guinea, they are considered by the negroes as their greatest tormentors. The flocks of

parrots persecute them with their unceasing screaming, and devour whatever fruits they attempt to produce by art in their little gardens. In other places they are not so destructive, but sufficiently common; and, indeed, there is scarce a country of the tropical climates that has not many of the common kinds, as well as some peculiarly its own. Travellers have counted more than a hundred different kinds on the continent of Africa only: there is one country in particular, north of the Cape of Good Hope, which takes its name from the multitude of parrots which are seen in its woods. There are white parrots seen in the burning regions of Ethiopia: in the East Indies they are of the largest size; in South America they are docile and talkative; in all the islands of the Pacific Sea and the Indian Ocean, they swarm in great variety and abundance, and add to the splendour of those woods which Nature has dressed in eternal green.

So generally are these birds known at present, and so great is their variety, that nothing seems more extraordinary than that there was but one sort of them known among the ancients, and that at a time when they pretended to be masters of the world. If nothing else could serve to shew the vanity of a Roman's boast, the parrot-tribe might be an instance, of which there are a hundred kinds now known; not one of which naturally breeds in the countries that acknowledged the Roman power. The green parakeet, with a red neck, was the first of this kind that was brought into Europe, and the only one that was known to the ancients, from the time of Alexander the Great to the age of Nero: this was brought from India; and when afterwards the Romans began to seek and rummage through all their dominions, for new and unheard-of luxuries, they at last found out others in Gaganda, an island of Ethiopia, which they considered as an extraordinary discovery.

Parrots have usually the same disorders with other birds; and they have one or two peculiar to their kind. They are sometimes struck by a kind of apoplectic blow, by which they fall from their perches, and for a while seem ready to expire. The other is the growing of the beak, which becomes so very much hooked as to deprive them of the power of eating. These infirmities, however, do not hinder

them from being long-lived; for a parrot, well kept, will live five or six and twenty years.

CHAP. VIII.

THE PIGEON, AND ITS VARIETIES.

THIS is one of the birds which, from its great fecundity, we have, in some measure, reclaimed from a state of nature, and taught to live in habits of dependence. Indeed, its fecundity seems to be increased by human cultivation; since those pigeons that live in a wild state, in the woods, are by no means so fruitful as those in our pigeon-houses nearer home. The power of increase in most birds depends upon the quantity of their food; and it is seen, in more than one instance, that man, by supplying food in plenty, and allowing the animal at the same time a proper share of freedom, has brought some of those kinds which are known to lay but once a year, to become much more prolific.

The tame pigeon, and all its beautiful varieties, derive their origin from one species, the Stock-Dove only; the English name, implying its being the stock or stem from whence the other domestic kinds have been propagated. This bird, in its natural state, is of a deep bluish ash-colour; the breast dashed with a fine changeable green and purple; its wings marked with two black bars; the back white, and the tail barred near the end with black. These are the colours of the pigeon in a state of nature; and from these simple tints has man by art propagated a variety that words cannot describe, nor even fancy suggest. However, Nature still perseveres in her great outline; and though the form, colour, and even the fecundity, of these birds, may be altered by art, yet their natural manners and inclinations continue still the same.

The stock-dove, in its native woods differs from the ring-dove, a bird that has never been reclaimed, by its breeding in the holes of rocks and the hollows of trees. All other birds of the pigeon-kind build, like rooks, in the topmost branches of the forest, and choose their habitation as remote as possible from man. But this species soon takes to build in artificial cavities; and, from the temptation of a ready provision and numerous society, easily submits to the tyranny of man. Still, however, it preserves its native colour for

several generations, and becomes more variegated only in proportion as it removes from the original simplicity of its colouring in the woods.

The Dove-house Pigeon, as is well known, breeds every month; but then it is necessary to supply it with food when the weather is severe, or the fields are covered with snow. Upon other occasions, it may be left to provide for itself, and it generally repays the owner for his protection. The pigeon lays two white eggs, which most usually produce young ones of different sexes. For the laying of each egg, it is necessary to have a particular congress with the male; and the egg is usually deposited in the afternoon. When the eggs are thus laid, the female, in the space of fifteen days, not including the three days during which she is employed in laying, continues to hatch, relieved at intervals by the male. The turns are usually regulated with great exactness. From three or four o'clock in the evening till nine the next day, the female continues to sit; she is then relieved by the male, who takes his place from ten till three, while his mate is feeding abroad. In this manner they sit alternately till the young are excluded. If, during this term, the female delays to return at the expected time, the male follows, and drives her to the nest; and should he in his turn be dilatory, she retaliates with equal severity.

The young ones, when hatched, require no food for the three first days, only wanting to be kept warm, which is an employment the female takes entirely upon herself. During this period, she never stirs out, except for a few minutes to take a little food. From this they are fed for eight or ten days with corn or grain of different kinds, which the old ones gather in the fields, and keep treasured up in their crops, from whence they throw it up again into the mouths of their young ones, who very greedily demand it.

As this method of feeding the young from the crop is different in birds of the pigeon-kind from all others, it demands a more detailed explanation. Of all birds, for its size, the pigeon has the largest crop, which is also made in a manner quite peculiar to the kind. In two of these that were dissected by a member of the Royal Academy of Sciences, it was found that if the anatomist blew air

into the wind-pipe, it distended the crop or gullet to a prodigious size. This was the more extraordinary, as there seemed to be no communication whatever between these two receptacles; as the conduit by which we breathe, as every one knows, leads to a very different receptacle from that where we put our food. By what apertures the air blown into the lungs of the pigeon makes its way into the crop, is unknown; but nothing is more certain than that these birds have a power of filling the crop with air; and some of them, which are called *croppers*, distend it in such a manner, that the bird's breast seems bigger than its body. The peculiar mechanism of this part is not well known; but the necessity for it in these animals is pretty obvious. The pigeon, as we all know, lives entirely upon grain and water: these are mixed together in the crop; and in the ordinary way are digested in proportion as the bird lays in its provision. But to feed its young, which are very voracious, it is necessary to lay in a store greater than ordinary, and to give the food a kind of half maceration, to suit their tender appetites. The heat of the bird's body, assisted by air, and numerous glands separating a milky fluid, are the most necessary instruments for this operation: but, in proportion as the food macerates, it begins to swell also; and the crop must, of consequence, be considerably dilated. Still, however, the air which is contained in it gives the bird a power of contracting it at pleasure; for if it were filled with more solid substances, the bird could have no power to compress it. But this is not the case, the bird can compress its crop at pleasure; and driving out the air, can thus drive out the food also, which is forced up the gullet, like a pellet from a pop-gun. The young ones, open-mouthed, receive this tribute of affection, and are thus fed three times a-day. In feeding, the male usually supplies the young female, while the old female supplies the young of the opposite sex. The food with which they are supplied, is more macerated at the beginning; but as they grow older, the parents give it less preparation, and at last drive them out to shift for themselves. When well fed, however, the old ones do not wait for the total dismissal of their young; but in the same nest are to be found young ones almost fit for flight, and eggs hatching at the same time.

The fidelity of the turtle-dove is proverbial, and makes the usual comparison of such poets as are content to repeat what others have said before them; but the pigeon of the dove-house is not so faithful; and having been subjected to man, it puts on licentiousness among its other domestic habits. Two males are often seen quarrelling for the same mistress; and when the female admits the addresses of a new gallant, her old companion seems to bear the contempt with some marks of displeasure, abstaining from her company; or if he approaches, it is only to chastise her. There have been instances when two males, being displeased with their respective mates, have thought proper to make an exchange, and have lived in great harmony with their new companions.

So great is the produce of this bird in its domestic state, that near fifteen thousand may, in the space of four years, be produced from a single pair. But the stock-dove seldom breeds above twice a year; for when the winter months come, the whole employment of the fond couple is rather for self-preservation, than transmitting a posterity. They seem, however, to have a stronger attachment to their young than those who are found to breed so often; whether it be that instinct acts more powerfully upon them in their state of nature, or that their affections are less divided by the multiplicity of claims.

It is from a species of these, therefore, that those pigeons which are called Carriers, and are used to convey letters, are produced. These are easily distinguished from all others by their eyes, which are compassed about with a broad circle of naked white skin, and by being of a dark blue or blackish colour. It is from their attachment to their native place, and particularly where they have brought up their young, that these birds are employed in several countries as the most expeditious carriers. They are first brought from the place where they were bred, and whither it is intended to send them back with information. The letter is tied under the bird's wing, and it is then let loose to return. The little animal no sooner finds itself at liberty, than its passion for its native spot directs all its motions. It is seen, upon these occasions, flying directly into the clouds to an amazing height; and then, with the greatest certainty and exactness, directing itself, by some surprising

instinct, towards home, which lies sometimes at many miles distance, bringing its message to those to whom it is directed. By what marks they discover the place, by what chart they are guided in the right way, is to us utterly unknown; certain it is, that in the space of an hour and a half they perform a journey of forty miles; which is a degree of dispatch three times greater than the fleetest quadruped can perform. These birds are not brought up at present with as much care as formerly, when they were sent from governors in a besieged city to generals that were coming to relieve it without; when they were sent from princes to their subjects with the tidings of some fortunate event; or from lovers to their mistresses with expressions of their passion. The only use we now see made of them is to be let fly at Tyburn, when the cart is drawn away: pretty much as when some ancient hero was to be interred, an eagle was let off from the funeral pile, to complete his apotheosis.*

The varieties of the tame pigeon are so numerous, that it would be a vain attempt to mention them: so much is the figure and colour of this bird under human control, that pigeon-fanciers, by coupling a male and female of different sorts, can breed them, as they express it, to a feather. From hence we have the various names of *croppers*, *carriers*, *jacobines*, *powters*, *runts*, and *turbits*: all birds that at

* In the Annual Register for the year 1765, we read of an experiment which was made, by which the velocity of flight in these birds was pretty well ascertained. A gentleman, for a trifling wager, sent a carrier pigeon from London by the coach, to a friend at St. Edmondsbury; and along with it a note, desiring that the pigeon, two days after its arrival there, might be thrown up precisely when the town clock struck nine in the morning. This was accordingly done; and the pigeon arrived in London, and flew into the Bell Inn in Bishopsgate-street, at half an hour past eleven o'clock of the same morning; having flown 72 miles in the space of two hours and a half.

Some years ago this animal was made use of for a very extraordinary purpose. During the drawing of the Lottery, a gang of sharpers, distributed in various places, devised a scheme for making this bird the instrument of their plunder. One of these was to bring with him a carrier-pigeon, and wait in the Guildhall till a large prize was drawn, and with all possible dispatch to place the fortunate number under the wing of the pigeon, and let him loose. This intelligence was faithfully conveyed to his associate, in a much more speedy manner than by the usual mode, and he was directed to ensure the number to whatever amount he thought proper. It is probable, that from this circumstance might arise the application of the common cant term *pigeon*, to any one who had been over-reached and cheated.

first might have accidentally varied from the stock-dove; and then, by having these varieties still heightened by food, climate, and pairing, different species have been produced. But there are many species of the wild pigeon, which, though bearing a strong affinity to the stock-dove, are, nevertheless, sufficiently different from it to deserve a distinct description.—The *ring-dove* is of this number; a good deal larger than the former, and building its nest with a few dry sticks, in the boughs of trees. This seems a bird much fonder of its native freedom than the former; and attempts have been frequently made to render it domestic; but they have hitherto proved fruitless, for though their eggs have been hatched by the tame pigeon in a dove-house, yet, as soon as they could fly, they always betook themselves to the woods where they were first produced. In the beginning of winter these assemble in great flocks in the woods, and leave off cooing; nor do they resume this note of courtship till the beginning of March, when the genial season, by supplying them with food, renews their desires.

The turtle-dove is a smaller, but a much shyer bird, than any of the former. It may easily be distinguished from the rest by the iris of the eye, which is of a fine yellow, and by a beautiful crimson circle that encompasses the eye-lids. The fidelity of these birds is noted; and a pair being put in a cage, if one dies the other will not survive it. The turtle-dove is a bird of passage, and few, or none, remain in our northern climates in winter. They fly in flocks when they come to breed here in summer, and delight in open, mountainous, sandy countries. But they build their nests in the midst of woods, and choose the most retired situations for incubation. They feed upon all sorts of grain, but are fondest of millet-seed.

To this short list might be added a long catalogue of foreign pigeons, of which we know little more than the plumage and the names. Indeed, the variety of their plumage is as beautiful, as the names by which they are known are harsh and dissonant. The *ocotzintzcan*, for instance, is one of the most splendid tenants of the Mexican forests; but few, I believe, would desire to learn the name; only to be informed that it is covered with purple, green, and yellow, plumage. To describe such birds, the historian's pen is not half such a useful implement as the painter's pencil.

BOOK V.

OF BIRDS OF THE SPARROW KIND.

CHAP. I.

OF BIRDS OF THE SPARROW KIND.

STILL descending from the larger to the smaller, we come to birds of the sparrow kind ; or that class of beautiful little animals that, being less than the pigeon, go on diminishing till we arrive at the humming-bird, the smallest of the feathered creation.

The birds which compose this class chiefly live in the neighbourhood of man, and are his greatest favourites. The falcon may be more esteemed, and the turkey more useful ; but these he considers as servants, not as friends ; as animals reclaimed merely to supply him with some of the conveniences of life : but these little painted songsters have his affections, as well from their beauty as their melody ; it is this delightful class that fill his groves with harmony, and lift his heart to sympathize with their raptures. All the other classes are either mute or screaming ; it is this diminutive tribe only that have voices equal to the beauty of their figures ; equally adapted to rejoice man, and delight each other.

As they are the favourites of man, so they are chiefly seen near him. All the great birds dread his vicinity, and keep to the thickest darkness of the forest, or the brow of the most craggy precipice : but these seldom resort to the thicker parts of the wood ; they keep near its edges, in

the neighbourhood of cultivated fields, in the hedge-rows of farm-grounds, and even in the yard, mixing with the poultry.

It must be owned, indeed, that their living near man is not a society of affection on their part, as they approach inhabited grounds merely because their chief provision is to be found there. In the depth of the desert, or the gloom of the forest, there is no grain to be picked up; none of those tender buds that are so grateful to their appetites: insects themselves, that make so great a part of their food, are not found there in abundance; their natures being unsuited to the moisture of the place. As we enter, therefore, deeper into uncultivated woods the silence becomes more profound; every thing carries the look of awful stilness; there are none of those warblings, none of those murmurs, that awaken attention, as near the habitations of men; there is nothing of that confused buzz, formed by the united, though distant, voices of quadrupeds and birds; but all is profoundly dead and solemn. Now and then, indeed, the traveller may be roused from this lethargy of life, by the voice of a heron, or the scream of an eagle; but his sweet little friends and warblers have totally forsaken him.

There is still another reason for these little birds avoiding the depths of the forests; which is, that their most formidable enemies usually reside there. The greater birds, like robbers, choose the most dreary solitudes for their retreats; and if they do not find, they make a desert all around them. The small birds fly from their tyranny, and take protection in the vicinity of man, where they know their more unmerciful foes will not venture to pursue them.

All birds, even those of passage, seem content with a certain district to provide food and centre in. The red-breast or the wren seldom leaves the field where it has been brought up, or where its young have been excluded; even though hunted it flies along the hedge, and seems fond of the place with an imprudent perseverance. The fact is, all these small birds mark out a territory to themselves, which they will permit none of their own species to remain in; they guard their dominions with the most watchful resentment;

and we seldom find two male tenants in the same hedge together.

Thus, though fitted by Nature for the most wandering life, these little animals do not make such distant excursions, during the season of their stay, as the stag or the leveret. Food seems to be the only object that puts them in motion, and when that is provided for them in sufficient plenty, they never wander. But as that is seldom permanent through the year, almost every bird is then obliged to change its abode. Some are called *birds of passage*, because they are obliged to take long journies for this purpose; but, strictly speaking, almost every other kind are birds of passage, though their migration may not be to places so remote. At some particular season of the year all small birds migrate either from one country to another, or from the more inland provinces towards the shore.

There are several persons who get a livelihood by watching the seasons when our small birds begin to migrate from one county to another, and by taking them with nets in their passage. The birds are found to fly, as the bird-catchers term it, chiefly during the month of October, and part of September and November. There is also another flight in March, which is much less considerable than that in autumn. Nor is it less remarkable, that several of these species of flight-birds make their appearance in regular succession. The pipit, for instance, begins its flight every year about Michaelmas, when they are caught in greatest number. To this the wood-lark succeeds, and continues its flight till towards the middle of October; other birds follow, but are not so punctually periodical; the green-finch does not begin till the frost obliges it to seek for a change. These birds, during those months, fly from day-break till twelve at noon; and there is afterwards a small flight from two till night. Such are the seasons of the migration of the birds, which have been usually considered as stationary, and on these occasions they are caught in great abundance, as they are on their journey. But the same arts used to allure them upon other occasions would be utterly fruitless, as they avoid the nets with the most prudent circumspection. The autumnal flight probably consists of the parents conducting their new-fledged young to those places where there is sufficient provision, and a proper temperament of the air

during the winter season; and their return in spring is obviously from an attachment to the place which was found so convenient before for the purposes of nestling and incubation.

Autumn is the principal season when the bird-catcher employs his art to catch these wanderers. His nets are a most ingenious piece of mechanism, being generally twelve yards and a half long, and two yards and a half wide, and so contrived as from a flat position to rise on each side, and clap over the birds that are decoyed to come between them. The birds in their passage are always observed to fly against the wind; hence there is a great contention among the bird-catchers which shall gain the wind; for example, if it is westerly, the bird-catcher who lays his nets most to the east is sure of the most plentiful sport, if his call-birds are good. For this purpose, he generally carries five or six linnets, two gold-finches, two green-finches, one wood-lark, one red-poll, and perhaps a bull-finch, a yellow-hammer, a tit-lark, and an aberdavine: these are placed at small distances from the nets in little cages. He has besides what he calls his *flur-birds*, which are placed upon a moveable perch, which the bird-catcher can raise at pleasure by means of a string; and these he always lifts gently up and down as the wild bird approaches. But this is not enough to allure the wild bird down; it must be called by one of the call-birds in the cages; and these, by being made to moult prematurely in a warm cage, call louder and better than those that are wild and at freedom. There even appears a malicious joy in these call-birds to bring the wild ones into the same state of captivity, while at the same time their call is louder, and their plumage brighter, than in a state of nature. Nor is their sight or hearing less exquisite, far exceeding that of the bird-catcher; for the instant the wild birds are perceived, notice is given by one to the rest of the call-birds, who all unite in the same tumultuous ecstasy of pleasure. The call-birds do not sing upon these occasions as a bird does in a chamber, but incite the wild ones by short jerks, which, when the birds are good, may be heard at a great distance. The allurements of this call is so great that the wild bird hearing it, is stopped in its most rapid flight; and, if not already acquainted with the nets, lights boldly within twenty yards perhaps of the bird-catcher, and on a spot which it

would otherwise have quite disregarded. This is the opportunity wished for, and the bird-catcher pulling a string, the nets on each side rise in an instant, and clap directly down on the poor little unsuspecting visitant. Nay, it frequently happens, that if half a flock only are caught, the remaining half will immediately afterwards light between the nets, and share the fate of their companions. Should only one bird escape, this unhappy survivor will also venture into danger till it is caught; such a fascinating power have the call-birds.

Indeed, it is not easy to account for the nature of this call, whether it be a challenge to combat, an invitation to food, or a prelude to courtship. As the call-birds are all males, and as the wild birds that attend to their voice are most frequently males also, it does not seem that love can have any influence in their assiduity. Perhaps the wild females, in these flights, attend to and obey the call below, and their male companions of the flight come down to bear them company. If this be the case, and that the females have unfaithfully led their mates into the nets, they are the first that are punished for their infidelity: the males are only made captives for singing; while the females are indiscriminately killed, and sold to be served up to the tables of the delicate.

Whatever be the motives that thus arrest a flock of birds in their flight, whether they be of gallantry or of war, it is certain that the small birds are equally remarkable for both. It is, perhaps, the genial desire that inspires the courage of most animals; and that being greatest in the males, gives them a greater degree of valour than the females. Small birds being extremely amorous, are remarkably brave. However contemptible these little warriors are to larger creatures they are often but too formidable to each other; and sometimes fight till one of them yields up his life with the victory. But their contentions are sometimes of a gentler nature. Two male birds shall strive in song till, after a long struggle, the loudest shall entirely silence the other. During these contentions, the female sits an attentive silent auditor, and often rewards the loudest songster with her company during the season.

Singing among birds is almost universally the prerogative of the male. With them it is the reverse of what occurs

in the human kind. Among the feathered tribe, the heaviest cares of life fall to the lot of the female. Her's is the fatigue of incubation, and to her devolves the principal fatigue of nursing the helpless brood. To alleviate these fatigues, and to support her under them, Nature has given the song to the male. This serves as a note of blandishment at first to attract her affections; it serves as a note to delight her during the time of her incubation; but it serves still farther as a note of security, to assure her that no danger threatens to molest her. The male, while his mate is hatching, sits upon some neighbouring tree, continuing at once to watch and to sing. While his voice is heard, the female rests in confident security; and, as the poet expresses it, appears *most bless'd when most unseen*: but if any appearance of danger offers to intrude, the male, that a moment before was so loud and sportive; stops all of a sudden; and this is a most certain signal to his mate to provide for her own security.

The nest of little birds seems to be of a more delicate contrivance than that of the larger kinds. As the volume of their bodies is smaller, the materials of which their nests are composed are generally warmer. It is easy to conceive that small things keep heat a shorter time than those that are large. The eggs, therefore, of small birds require a place of more constant warmth than those of great ones, as being liable to cool more quickly; and accordingly their nests are built warmer and deeper, lined on the inside with softer substances, and guarded above with a better covering. But it sometimes happens that the little architects are disturbed in their operations, and then they are obliged to make a nest, not such as they wish, but such as they can. The bird whose nest has been robbed several times; builds up her last in a very slovenly manner, conscious that, from the near approach of winter, she must not take time to give her habitation every possible advantage it is capable of receiving. When the nest is finished, nothing can exceed the cunning which the male and female employ to conceal it. If it is built in bushes, the pliant branches are so disposed as to hide it entirely from the view; if it be built among moss, nothing outwardly appears to shew that there is an habitation within. It is always built near those places where food is found in greatest abundance; and they take care

never to go in or out while there is any one in sight. The greater birds continue from their nest for some time, as their eggs take no damage in their absence; but the little birds are assiduous while they sit, and the nest is always occupied by the male when the female is obliged to seek for sustenance.

The first food of all birds of the sparrow kind is worms and insects. Even the sparrow and the gold-finch, that when adult feed only upon grain, have both been fed upon insects while in the nest. The young ones, for some time after their exclusion from the shell, require no food; but the parent soon finds, by their chirping and gaping, that they begin to feel the approaches of hunger, and flies to provide them a plentiful supply. In her absence they continue to lie close together, and cherish each other by their mutual warmth. During this interval also they preserve a perfect silence, uttering not the slightest note, till the parent returns. Her arrival is always announced by a chirrup, which they perfectly understand, and which they answer all together, each petitioning for its portion. The parent distributes a supply to each by turns, cautiously avoiding to gorge them, but to give them often, though little at a time. The wren will in this manner feed seventeen or eighteen young ones without passing over one of them.

Such is the manner in which these birds bring forth and hatch their young; but it yet remains to usher them from the nest into life, and this they very assiduously perform. When they are fully fledged, and fitted for short flights, the old ones, if the weather be fair, lead them a few yards from the nest, and then compel them to return. For two or three succeeding days they are led out in the same manner, but each day to seek more distant adventures. When it is perceived that they can fly, and shift for themselves, then the parents forsake them for ever, and pay them no more attention than they do to other birds in the same flock. Indeed, it would seem among these little animals that, from the moment their young are set out, all future connexion ceases between the male and the female; they go separate ways, each to provide for itself during the rigours of winter; and, at the approach of spring, each seeks for a new associate.

In general, birds, when they come to pair in spring,

associate with those of their own age and place of abode. Their strength or courage is generally in proportion to their age: the oldest females first feel the accesses of desire, and the oldest males are the boldest to drive off all younger pretenders. Those next in courage and desire become pretenders, till they are almost all provided in turn. The youngest come last; as, in fact, they are the latest in their inclinations. But still there are several, both males and females, that remain unprovided for; either not happening to meet with each other, or at least not during the genial interval. Whether these mix with small birds of a different species, is a doubt which naturalists have not been able thoroughly to resolve. Addison, in some beautiful Latin lines, inserted in the *Spectator*, is entirely of opinion that birds observe a strict chastity of manners, and never admit the caresses of a different tribe.

Chaste are their instincts, faithful is their fire,
 No foreign beauty tempts to false desire :
 The snow-white vesture, and the glittering crown,
 The simple plumage, or the glossy down,
 Prompt not their love. The patriot bird pursues
 His well acquainted tints, and kindred hues :
 Hence thro' their tribes no mix'd polluted flame,
 No monster-breed to mark the groves with shame :
 But the chaste blackbird, to its partner true,
 Thinks black alone is Beauty's fav'rite hue :
 The nightingale, with mutual passion blest,
 Sings to its mate, and nightly charms the nest :
 While the dark owl, to court his partner flies,
 And owns his offspring in their yellow eyes.

But whatever may be the poet's opinion, the probability is against this fidelity among the smaller tenants of the grove. The great birds are much more true to their species than these; and, of consequence, the varieties among them are more few. Of the ostrich, the cassowary, and the eagle, there are but few species; and no arts that man can use could probably induce them to mix with each other.

But it is otherwise with the small birds we are describing; it requires very little trouble to make a species between a gold-finch, and a canary-bird, between a linnet and a lark. They breed frequently together; and produce a race, not, like the mules among quadrupeds, incapable of breeding

again ; for this motley mixture are as fruitful as their parents. What is so easily done by art, very probably often happens in a state of nature ; and when the male cannot find a mate of his own species he flies to one of another, that, like him, has been left out in pairing. This, some historians think, may have given rise to the great variety of small birds that are seen among us ; some uncommon mixture might first have formed a new species, and this might have been continued down, by birds of this species choosing to breed together.

Whether the great variety of our small birds may have arisen from this source cannot now be ascertained ; but certain it is that they resemble each other very strongly, not only in their form and plumage, but also in their appetites and manner of living. The gold-finch, the linnet, and the yellow-hammer, though obviously of different species, yet lead a very similar life ; being equally an active, lively, salacious tribe, that subsist by petty thefts upon the labours of mankind, and repays them with a song. Their nests bear a similitude ; and they are all about the same time in hatching their young, which is usually fifteen days. Were I, therefore, to describe the manners of these with the same minuteness that I have done the greater birds, I should only present the reader with a repetition of the same accounts ; animated neither by novelty nor information. , Instead, therefore, of specifying each sort, I will throw them into groupes ; uniting those together that practise the same manners, or that are remarkable for similar qualifications.

Willoughby has divided all the smaller birds into those that have slender bills, and those that have short and thick bills. Those with slender bills, chiefly live upon insects ; those with short strong bills, live mostly upon fruits and grain. . . Among slender-billed birds, he enumerates the thrush, the blackbird, the fieldfare, the starling, the lark, the titmouse, the water-wagtail, the nightingale, the red-start, the robin-redbreast, the beccafigo, the stone-chatter, the whin-chat, the gold-finch, the white-throat, the hedge-sparrow, the pettichaps, the golden-crowned wren, the wren, the humming-bird, and several other small birds of the sparrow-kind, unknown in this part of the world.

All these, as was said, live for the most part upon insects ;

and are consequently of particular benefit to man. By these are his grounds cleared of the pernicious swarms of vermin that devour the budding leaves and flowers; and that even attack the root itself, before ever the vegetable can come to maturity. These seek for and destroy the eggs of insects that would otherwise propagate in numbers beyond the arts of man to extirpate: they know better than man where to seek for them; and thus at once satisfy their own appetites, and render him the most essential services.

But this is not the only merit of this tribe: in it we have the sweetest songsters of the grove; their notes are softer, and their manner more musically soothing, than those of hard-billed birds. The foremost in musical fame are the nightingale, the thrush, the blackbird, the lark, the red-breast, the black-cap, and the wren.

Birds of the sparrow-kind, with thick and short bills, are the gross-beak, the green-finch, the bull-finch, the crossbill, the house-sparrow, the chaffinch, the brambling, the gold-finch, the linnet, the siskin, the bunting, the yellow-hammer, the ortolan, the wheat-ear, and several other foreign birds, of which we know rather the names than the history. These chiefly feed upon fruits, grain, and corn.—They are often troublesome to man, as they are a numerous tribe; the harvest often suffers from their depredations; and while they are driven off from one end of the field, they fly round, and come in at the other. But these also have their uses: they are frequently the distributors of seeds into different districts; those grains which they swallow are sometimes not wholly digested; and these, laid upon a soil congenial to them, embellish the face of nature with that agreeable variety, which art but vainly attempts to imitate. The mistletoe plant, which we often see growing on the tops of elm and other trees, has been thought to be propagated in this manner; yet, as it is often seen growing on the under side of the branch, and sometimes on a perpendicular shoot, it seems extraordinary how a seed could be deposited in that situation. However this be, there are many plants propagated from the depositions of birds; and some seeds are thought to thrive the better for first having undergone a kind of maceration in the stomach of the little animal, before it is voided on the ground.

There are some agreeable songsters in this tribe also; and

those who like a loud piercing pipe, endued with great variety and perseverance, will be pleased most with their singing. The songsters of this class are the canary-bird, the linnet, the chaffinch, the gold-finch, the green-finch, the bull-finch, the brambling, the siskin, and the yellow-hammer. The note of these is not so generally pleasing as that of the soft-billed birds, but it usually holds longer; and, in a cage, these birds are more easily fed, and more hardy.

This class of small birds, like all the greater, has its wanderers, that leave us for a season, and then return, to propagate, to sing, or to embellish the landscape here. Some of this smaller kind, indeed, are called *birds of passage*, that do not properly come under that denomination; for though they disappear in one place they never leave the kingdom, but are seen somewhere else. But there are many among them that take longer flights, and go to a region colder or warmer, as it suits their constitutions. The fieldfare and the red-wing breed pass their summers in Norway, and other cold countries, and are tempted hither to our mild winters, and to those various berries which then abound with us, and make their principal food. The haw-finch and the crossbill are uncertain visitants, and have no stated times of migration. Swallows of every species disappear at the approach of winter. The nightingale, the black-cap, the fly-catcher, the willow-wren, the wheat-ear, the whin-chat, and the stone-chatter, leave us long before the approach of winter; while the siskin and the linnet only forsake us when our winters are more than usually severe. All the rest of the smaller tribe never quit this country: but support the severest rigors of the climate.

Yet it must not be supposed that the manners of our little birds prevail in all other countries; and that such kinds as are stationary with us never wander in other parts of Europe; on the contrary, it happens that many of those kinds which are birds of passage in England are seen, in other places, never to depart, but to make one country their fixed residence the whole year round. It is also frequent, that some birds, which with us are faithful residents, in other kingdoms put on the nature of birds of passage, and disappear for a season.

The swallow, that with us is particularly remarked for

being a bird of passage, in Upper Egypt, and in the island of Java, breeds and continues the whole year, without ever disappearing. Larks, that remain with us the year throughout, are birds of passage in Sweden; and forsake that climate in winter to return again with the returning spring. The chaffinch, that with us is stationary, appears during the winter in Carolina and Virginia; but disappears totally in summer, to breed in the more northern regions. In Sweden, also, these little birds are seen returning, at the approach of spring, from the warmer climates, to propagate; which being accomplished by the latter end of autumn, the males and females separate; the males to continue among their native snows, the females to seek a warmer and gentler winter. On this occasion, they are seen in flocks, that darken all the air, without a single male among them, making their way into the more southern regions of Denmark, Germany, and Holland. In this Amazon-like retreat thousands fall by the way; some by fatigue, some by want; but the greatest number by the nets of the fowler; the taking them being one of the chief amusements among the gentry where they pass. In short, the change of country with all this little tribe, is rather a pilgrimage than a journey; a migration rather of necessity than of choice.

Having thus given a general idea of the birds of this class, it will be proper to give some account of the most remarkable among them.

CHAP. II.

OF THE THRUSH, AND ITS AFFINITIES.

WITH the Thrush we may rank the red-wing, the fieldfare, the blackbird, the ring-ouzel, and the water-ouzel. These are the largest of the sparrow-kind, and may be distinguished from all others of this class, as well by their size, which is well known, as by their bills, which are a little bending at the point; a small notch near the end of the upper chap; and the outmost toe adhering as far as the first joint of the middle toe. To this tribe may be also added the stare or starling, which, though with a flat bill, too much resembles these birds to be placed any where else.

The missel-thrush is distinguished from all of the kind by its superior size, being much larger than any of them. It differs scarcely in any other respect from the thrush, except that the spots on the breast are larger. It builds its nest in bushes, or on the side of some tree, as all of this kind are found to do, and lays four or five eggs in the season. Its song is very fine, which it begins in spring, sitting on the summit of a high tree. It is the largest bird of all the feathered tribe that has music in its voice; the note of all greater birds being either screaming, chattering, or croaking. It feeds on insects, holly, and mistletoe-berries; and sometimes sends forth a very disagreeable scream when frightened or disturbed.

The blackbird, which in cold countries, and particularly upon the Alps, is sometimes seen all over white, is a beautiful and canorous bird, whistling all the spring and summer time with a note, at a distance, the most pleasing of all the grove. It is the deepest toned warbler of the woods; but it is rather unpleasant in a cage, being loud and deafening. It lays four or five bluish eggs, in a nest usually built at the stump of some old hawthorn, well plastered on the inside with clay, straw, and hair.

Pleasing, however, as this bird may be, the Blue-bird, described by Bellonius, is in every respect far superior. This beautiful animal entirely resembles a blackbird in all but its blue colour. It lives in the highest parts of the Alps, and even there chooses the most craggy rocks and the most frightful precipices for its residence. As it is rarely caught, it is in high estimation even in the countries where it breeds, but still more valuable when carried from home. It not only whistles in the most delightful manner, but speaks with an articulate distinct voice. It is so docile, and observes all things with such diligence, that though waked at midnight by any of the family, it will speak and whistle at the word of command. Its colour, about the beginning of winter, from blue becomes black, which changes to its original hue on the first approaches of spring. It makes its nest in deep holes, in very high and inaccessible solitudes, and removes it not only from the accesses of man, but also hides it with surprising cunning from the shammoy and other wild beasts that might annoy its young.

The manner of taking this beautiful bird is said to be this.

The fowlers, either by chance or by lying in wait, having found out the place where it builds, take with them a strong stilt or stake, such as the climbers of rocks make use of to assist them in their ascent. With the assistance of this, they mount where an indifferent spectator would think it impossible to ascend, covering their heads at the same time to ward off any danger of the falling of pebbles or stones from above. At length, with extreme toil and danger, having arrived at the nest, they draw it up from the hole in which it is usually buried, and cherish the young with an assiduity equal to the pains they took to obtain them. It produces for the most part five young, and never more; it seldom descends into the plain country, flies swifter than a blackbird, and uses the same food.

The fieldfare and the red-wing make but a short stay in this country. With us they are insipid tuneless birds, flying in flocks, and excessively watchful to preserve the general safety. All their season of music and pleasure is employed in the more northern climates, where they sing most delightfully, perched among the forests of maples, with which those countries abound. They build their nests in hedges; and lay six bluish-green eggs spotted with black.

The stare, distinguishable from the rest of this tribe by the glossy green of its feathers in some lights, and the purple in others, breeds in hollow trees, eaves of houses, towers, ruins, cliffs, and often in high rocks over the sea. It lays four or five eggs of a pale greenish ash-colour, and makes its nest of straw, small fibres of roots, and such like. Its voice is rougher than the rest of this kind; but what it wants in the melody of its note, it compensates by the facility with which it is taught to speak. In winter these birds assemble in vast flocks, and feed upon worms and insects. At the approach of spring they assemble in fields as if in consultation together, and for three or four days seem to take no nourishment: the greater part leave the country; the rest breed here, and bring up their young.

To this tribe might be added above a hundred other birds of nearly the thrush size, and living like them upon fruit and berries. Words could not afford variety enough to describe all the beautiful tints that adorn the foreign birds of the thrush kind. The brilliant green of the emerald, the flaming

red of the ruby, the purple of the amethyst, or the bright blue of the sapphire, could not, by the most artful combination, shew any thing so truly lively or delightful to the sight, as the feathers of the chilcoqui or the tautotal. Passing, therefore, over these beautiful, but little known, birds, I will only mention the American mock-bird, the favourite songster of a region, where the birds excel rather in the beauty of their plumage than the sweetness of their notes.

This valuable bird does not seem to vie with the feathered inhabitants of that country in the beauty of its plumage, content with qualifications that endear it to mankind much more. It is but a plain bird to the eye, about the size of a thrush, of a white and gray colour, and a reddish bill. It is possessed not only of its own natural notes, which are musical and solemn, but it can assume the tone of every other animal in the wood, from the wolf to the raven. It seems even to sport itself in leading them astray. It will, at one time, allure the lesser birds with the call of their males, and then terrify them, when they have come near, with the screams of the eagle. There is no bird in the forest but it can mimic; and there is none that it has not, at times, deceived by its call. But, not like such as we usually see famed for mimicking with us, and who have no particular merit of their own, the mock-bird is ever surest to please when it is most itself. At those times it usually frequents the houses of the American planters; and, sitting all night on the chimney-top, pours forth the sweetest and the most various notes of any bird whatever. It would seem, if accounts be true, that the deficiency of most other song-birds in that country, is made up by this bird alone. They often build their nests in the fruit-trees about houses, feed upon berries and other fruits, and are easily rendered domestic.

CHAP. III.

OF THE NIGHTINGALE, AND OTHER SOFT-BILLED
SONG-BIRDS.

THE Nightingale is not only famous among the moderns for its singing, but almost every one of the ancients, who undertook to describe beautiful nature, has contributed to raise its reputation. "The nightingale," says Pliny, "that, for fifteen days and nights, hid in the thickest shades, continues her note without intermission, deserves our attention and wonder. How surprising that so great a voice can reside in so small a body! such perseverance in so minute an animal! With what a musical propriety are the sounds it produces modulated! The note at one time drawn out with a long breath, now stealing off into a different cadence, now interrupted by a break, then changing into a new note by an unexpected transition; now seeming to renew the same strain, then deceiving expectation! She sometimes seems to murmur within herself; full, deep, sharp, swift, drawling, trembling; now at the top, the middle, and the bottom of the scale! In short, in that little bill seems to reside all the melody which man has vainly laboured to bring from a variety of musical instruments. Some even seem to be possessed of a different song from the rest, and contend with each other with great ardour. The bird overcome is then seen only to discontinue its song with its life."

This most famous of the feathered tribe visits England in the beginning of April, and leaves us in August. It is found but in some of the southern parts of the country, being totally unknown in Scotland, Ireland, or North Wales. They frequent thick hedges and low coppices, and generally keep in the middle of the bush, so that they are rarely seen. They begin their song in the evening, and generally continue it for the whole night. For weeks together, if undisturbed, they sit upon the same tree; and Shakspeare rightly describes the nightingale sitting nightly in the same place, which I have frequently observed she seldom departs from.

From Pliny's description, we should be led to believe this bird possessed of a persevering strain; but though it is in fact so with the nightingale in Italy, yet, in our hedges in England, the little songstress is by no means so liberal of her music. Her note is soft, various, and interrupted; she seldom holds it without a pause above the time that one can count twenty. The nightingale's pausing song would be the proper epithet for this bird's music with us, which is more pleasing than the warbling of any other bird, because it is heard at a time when all the rest are silent.

In the beginning of May, the nightingale prepares to make its nest, which is formed of the leaves of trees, straw, and moss. The nest being very eagerly sought after, is as cunningly secreted; so that but very few of them are found by the boys when they go upon these pursuits. It is built at the bottom of hedges, where the bushes are thickest and best covered. While the female continues sitting, the male at a good distance, but always within hearing, cheers the patient hour with his voice, and, by the short interruption of his song, often gives her warning of approaching danger. She lays four or five eggs; of which but a part in our cold climate come to maturity.

The delicacy, or rather the fame, of this bird's music, has induced many to abridge its liberty, to be secured of its song. Indeed, the greatest part of what has been written concerning it in our country consists in directions how to manage it for domestic singing; while the history of the bird is confined to dry receipts for fitting it for the cage. Its song, however, in captivity, is not so very alluring; and the tyranny of taking it from those hedges where only it is most pleasing, still more depreciates its imprisoned efforts. Gesner assures us, that it is not only the most agreeable songster in a cage, but that it is possessed of a most admirable faculty of talking. He tells the following story in proof of his assertion, which he says was communicated to him by a friend. "Whilst I was at Ratisbon,"

ys his correspondent, "I put up at an inn, the sign of the olden Crown, where my host had three nightingales. That I am going to repeat is wonderful, almost incredible, and yet is true. The nightingales were placed separately, so that each was shut up by itself in a dark cage. It happened at that time, being the spring of the

year, when those birds are wont to sing indefatigably, that I was so afflicted with the stone, that I could sleep but very little all night. It was usual then about midnight, when there was no noise in the house, but all still, to hear the two nightingales jangling and talking with each other, and plainly imitating men's discourses. For my part I was almost astonished with wonder; for at this time, when all was quiet else, they held conference together, and repeated whatever they had heard among the guests by day. Those two of them that were most notable, and masters of this art, were scarcely ten feet distant from one another. The third hung more remote, so that I could not so well hear it as I lay a-bed. But it is wonderful to tell how those two provoked each other; and by answering, invited and drew one another to speak. Yet did they not confound their words, or talk both together, but rather utter them alternately and of course. Besides the daily discourse of the guests, they chaunted out two stories, which generally held them from midnight till morning; and that with such modulations and inflections, that no man could have taken to come from such little creatures. When I asked the host if they had been taught, or whether he observed their talking in the night, he answered, no: the same said the whole family. But I, who could not sleep for nights together, was perfectly sensible of their discourse. One of their stories was concerning the tapster and his wife, who refused to follow him to the wars, as he desired her: for the husband endeavoured to persuade his wife, as far as I understood by the birds, that he would leave his service in that inn, and go to the wars in hopes of plunder. But she refused to follow him, resolving to stay either at Ratisbon, or go to Nuremberg. There was a long and earnest contention between them; and all this dialogue the birds repeated. They even repeated the unseemly words which were cast out between them, and which ought rather to have been suppressed and kept a secret. But the birds, not knowing the difference between modest, immodest, honest, and filthy words, did out with them. The other story was concerning the war which the emperor was then threatening against the Protestants; which the birds probably heard from some of the generals that had conferences in the house. These things did they repeat in the night after twelve o'clock, when there was a deep silence. But in the

day-time, for the most part they were silent, and seemed to do nothing but meditate and revolve with themselves upon what the guests conferred together as they sat at table, or in their walks. I verily had never believed our Pliny writing so many wonderful things concerning these little creatures, had I not myself seen with my eyes, and heard them with my ears uttering such things as I have related. Neither yet can I of a sudden write all, or call to remembrance every particular that I have heard."

Such is the sagacity ascribed to the nightingale: it is but to have high reputation for any one quality, and the world is ready enough to give us fame for others to which we have very small pretensions. But there is a little bird, rather celebrated for its affection to mankind than its singing, which, however, in our climate, has the sweetest note of all others. The reader already perceives that I mean the RED-BREAST, the well-known friend of man, that is found in every hedge, and makes it vocal. The note of other birds is louder, and their inflexions more capricious, but this bird's voice is soft, tender, and well supported; and the more to be valued, as we enjoy it the greatest part of the winter. If the nightingale's song has been compared to the fiddle, the red-breast's voice has all the delicacy of the flute.

The red-breast, during the spring, haunts the wood, the grove, and the garden; it retires to the thickest and shadiest hedge-rows to breed in. But in winter it seems to become more domestic, and often to claim protection from man. Most of the soft-billed birds, the nightingale, the swallow, and the tit-mouse, leave us in the winter, when their insect food is no longer offered in plenty; but the red-breast continues with us the year round, and endeavours to support the famine of winter by chirping round the warm habitations of mankind; by coming into those shelters where the rigour of the season is artificially expelled, and where insects themselves are found in greater numbers, attracted by the same cause.

This bird breeds differently in different places: in some countries its nest is usually found in the crevice of some mossy bank, or at the foot of a hawthorn in hedge-rows; in others it chooses the thickest coverts, and hides its nest with oak leaves. The eggs are from four to five, of a dull white, with reddish streaks.

The Lark, whether the sky-lark, the wood, or the tit-lark, being all distinguishable from other little birds by the length of their heel, are louder in their song than either of the former, but not so pleasing. Indeed, the music of every bird in captivity produces no very pleasing sensations; it is but the mirth of a little animal, insensible of its unfortunate situation: it is the landscape, the grove, the golden break of day, the contest upon the hawthorn, the fluttering from branch to branch, the soaring in the air, and the answering of its young, that gives the bird's song its true relish. These, united, improve each other, and raise the mind to a state of the highest, yet most harmless, exultation. Nothing can, in this situation of mind, be more pleasing than to see the lark warbling upon the wing; raising its note as it soars, until it seems lost in the immense heights above us; the note continuing, the bird itself unseen; to see it then descending with a swell as it comes from the clouds, yet sinking by degrees as it approaches its nest, the spot where all its affections are centered, the spot that has prompted all this joy.

The lark builds its nest upon the ground, beneath some turf that serves to hide and shelter it. The female lays four or five eggs, of a dusky hue in colour, somewhat like those of a plover. It is while she is sitting that the male thus usually entertains her with his singing; and while he is risen to an imperceptible height, yet he still has his loved partner in his eye, nor once loses sight of the nest, either while he ascends or is descending. This harmony continues several months, beginning early in the spring on pairing. In winter they assemble in flocks, when their song forsakes them, and the bird-catchers destroy them in great numbers for the tables of the luxurious.

The Black-cap and the Wren, though so very diminutive, are yet prized by some for their singing. The former is called by some the mock nightingale; and the latter is admired for the loudness of its note, compared to the little body from whence it issues. It must be confessed, that this disproportion between the voice of a bird and its size, in some measure demands our wonder. Quadrupeds in this respect may be considered as mutes to them. The peacock is louder than the lion, and the rabbit is not so loud as the wren. But it must be considered, that birds are very differ-

ently formed; their lungs in some measure are extended through their whole body, while in quadrupeds they lie only in the breast. In birds there are a variety of cells which take in the air, and thus pour forth their contents at the little animal's command. The black-cap and the wren, therefore, are as respectable for their voices as they might be deemed inconsiderable for their size.

All these soft-billed birds, thus prized for their singing, are rendered domestic, and brought up with assiduity by such as are fond of their voices in a cage. The same method of treatment serves for all; as their food and their habits are nearly the same. The manner of taking and treating them, particularly the nightingale, is this: A nightingale's nest may be found by observing the place where the male sings, and then by sticking two or three meal-worms (a kind of maggot found in flour) on some neighbouring thorn, which when he sees he will infallibly bear away to his young. By listening, he then may be heard with the female chirping to the young ones while they are feeding. When the nest is found, if the young ones are not fledged enough to be taken, they must not be touched with the hands, for then the old ones will perceive it, and entice them away. They should not be taken till they are almost as full of feathers as the old ones; and, though they refuse their meat, yet, by opening their bills, you may give them two or three small bits at a time, which will make them soon grow tame, when they will feed themselves. They should be put, nest and all, into a little basket, which should be covered up warm: and they should be fed every two hours. Their food should be sheep's hearts, or other raw flesh-meat, chopped very fine, and all the strings, skins, and fat, taken away. But it should always be mixed with hard hen's eggs, upon which they will feed and thrive abundantly.

They should then be put in cages like the nightingale's back cage, with a little straw or dry moss at the bottom; but when they are grown large, they should have ant's mould. They should be kept very clean, as indeed should all singing-birds whatsoever; for otherwise they will have the cramp, and perhaps the claws will drop off. In autumn they will sometimes abstain from their food for a fortnight, unless two or three meal-worms be given them twice or

thrice a week, or two or three spiders in a day; they must likewise have a little saffron in their water. Figs chopped small among their meat will help them to recover their flesh. When their legs are cramped, they should be anointed with fresh butter, or capon's fat, three or four days together. If they grow melancholy, put white sugar-candy into their water, and feed them with sheep's heart, giving them three or four meal-worms in a day, and a few ants with their eggs.

With regard to adult birds, those that are taken before the twenty-third of April are accounted the best, because after that they begin to pair. They usually haunt woods, coppices, and quickset hedges, where they may be taken in trap-cages baited with meal-worms. They should be placed as near the spot where the bird sings as possible; and before you fix the trap, turn up the earth twice the breadth of the cage, because they will there look for food. They are also taken with lime twigs, placing them upon the hedge where they usually sing; and there should be meal-worms stuck at proper places to draw them into the snare. After they are taken, their wings should be gently tied with thread, to prevent their beating themselves against the cage. This should be first hung in a private place, that the bird may not be disturbed; and it should be fed every two hours, at farthest, with sheep's heart and egg minced very fine, mixing it with meal-worms. However, the first food must be worms, ants, caterpillars, and flies. You must, to feed the bird, take it in your hand, and open the bill with a stick made thick at one end, giving it the insects, or four or five bits of food as big as peas, to entice it to eat. Its common food should be mixed with ants, so that when the bird goes to pick up the ants, it may pick up some of that also. The nightingale, when caged, begins to sing about the latter end of November, and continues its song till June.

CHAP. IV.

OF THE CANARY-BIRD, AND OTHER HARD-BILLED
SINGING-BIRDS.

THE Canary-bird is now become so common, and has continued so long in a domestic state, that its native habits, as well as its native country, seem almost forgotten. Though by the name it appears that these birds came originally from the Canary Islands, yet we have it originally from Germany, where they are bred up in great numbers, and sold into different parts of Europe. At what period they were brought into Europe is not well known; but it is certain that about a century ago they were sold at very high prices, and kept only for the amusement of the great. They have since been multiplied in great abundance; and their price is diminished in proportion to their plenty.

In its native islands, a region equally noted for the beauty of its landscapes and the harmony of its groves, the Canary-bird is of a dusky gray colour, and so different from those usually seen in Europe, that some have even doubted whether it be of the same species. With us, they have that variety of colouring usual in all domestic fowls; some white, some mottled, some beautifully shaded with green; but they are more esteemed for their note than their beauty, having a high piercing pipe, as indeed all those of the finch tribe have, continuing for some time in one breath without intermission; then raising it higher and higher by degrees, with great variety.

It is this that has rendered the Canary-bird, next to the nightingale; the most celebrated songster; and as it is more easily reared than any of the soft-billed birds, and continues its song throughout the year, it is rather the most common in our houses. Rules, therefore, have been laid down, and copious instructions given, for breeding these birds in a domestic state; which, as a part of them may conduce towards the natural history of the bird, I will take leave to transcribe.

In choosing the Canary-bird, those are best that appear with life and boldness, standing upright upon the perch

like a sparrow-hawk, and not apt to be frightened at every thing that stirs. If its eyes look cheerful, and not drowsy; it is a sign of health; but, on the contrary, if it hides its head under the wing, and gathers its body up, these are symptoms of its being out of order. In choosing them, the melody of the song should also be minded; some will open with the notes of the nightingale, and, running through a variety of modulations, end like the tit-lark. Others will begin like the sky-lark, and, by a soft melodious turn, fall into the notes of the nightingale. These are lessons taught this bird in its domestic state, and generally taught it by others; but its native note is loud, shrill, piercing, and enough to deafen the hearers. There are persons who admire each of these songs, but the second is in the most general estimation.

Canary-birds sometimes breed all the year round; but they most usually begin to pair in April, and to breed in June and August. Those are said to be the best breeders that are produced between the English and the French.

Towards the latter end of March, a cock and a hen should be put together in a small cage, where they will peck at each other in the beginning, but will soon become thoroughly reconciled. The room where they are kept to breed should be so situated as to let the birds have the benefit of the morning sun, and the windows should be of wire, not glass, that they may enjoy the benefit of the air. The floor of the room should be kept clean, and sometimes there should be dry gravel or sand sifted upon it. There should also be two windows, one at each end, and several perches at proper distances for the birds to settle on, as they fly backwards and forwards. A tree in the middle of the room would be the most convenient to divert the birds, and sometimes to serve for building their nests upon.

In Germany they prepare a large room, and build it in the manner of a barn, being much longer than broad, with a square place at each end, and several holes to go into those square places. In those outlets they plant several sorts of trees, in which the birds take great delight to sing and breed. The bottom of the place they strew with sand, and upon it cast rape-seed, chick-weed, and groundsel, which the old birds feed upon while breeding. In the body of the house they put all sorts of stuff for building

the nest, and brooms, one under the other, in all the corners, for the birds to build in. These they separate by partitions from each other, to prevent those above flying down upon, or otherwise incommoding, such as breed below. The light also is excluded, for no bird is fond of having light come to its nest.

With us the apparatus for breeding is less expensive ; a little breeding-cage sometimes suffices, but seldom any thing more extensive than a small room. While the birds are pairing, it is usual to feed them with soft meat ; that is, bread, maw-seed, a little scalded rape-seed, and near a third part of an egg. The room should be furnished with stuff for making their nests ; such as fine hay, wool, cotton, and hair. These materials should be thoroughly dry, and then mixed and tied together in such a manner that the birds may readily pull out what they want. This should be hung in a proper part of the room, and the male will take his turn in building the nest, sitting upon the eggs, and feeding the young. They are generally two or three days in building their nests ; the hen commonly lays five eggs ; and in the space of fourteen days the young will be excluded. So prolific are these birds sometimes, that the female will be ready to hatch a second brood before the first are able to quit the nest. On these occasions she leaves the nest and the young, to provide herself with another to lay her new brood in. In the mean time the male, more faithful to the duties of his trust, breeds up the young left behind, and fits them for a state of independence.

When the young ones are excluded, the old ones should be supplied with a sufficiency of soft food every day, with likewise fresh greens, such as cabbage, lettuce, and chickweed ; in June, shepherd's purse ; and in July and August, plantain. They are never to have groundsel after the young are excluded. With these different delicacies the old ones will take particular care to feed and bring up their young ; but it is usual when they can feed themselves, to be taken from the nest and put into cages. Their meat then is the yolk of an egg boiled hard, with an equal quantity of fine bread, and a little scalded rape-seed : this must be bruised till it becomes fine, and then it may be mixed with a little maw-seed ; after which blend all together ; which is to be supplied them fresh every day.

The Canary-bird, by being kept in company with the linnet or the gold-finch, pairs and produces a mixed breed more like the Canary-bird, and resembling it chiefly in its song. Indeed, all this tribe with strong bills and piercing notes, and feeding upon grain, have the most strong similitude to each other, and may justly be supposed, as Mr. Buffon imagines, to come from the same original. They all breed about the same time; they frequent the same vegetables; they build in the same hedges and trees; and are brought up for the cage with the same food and precautions. The linnet, the bull-finch, and the gold-finch, when we know the history of the Canary-bird, have scarcely any peculiarities that can attract our curiosity, or require our care. The only art necessary with all those that have no very fine note, is to breed them up under some more pleasing harmonist.—The gold-finch learns a fine song from the nightingale; and the linnet and bull-finch may be taught, forgetting the wild notes of nature, to whistle a long and regular tune.

CHAP. V.

OF THE SWALLOW, AND ITS AFFINITIES.

AN idea of any one bird in the former classes will give us some tolerable conception of the rest. By knowing the linnet or the Canary-bird, we have some notion of the manners of the gold-finch; by exhibiting the history of the nightingale, we see also that of the black-cap or the tit-mouse. But the swallow tribe seems to be entirely different from all the former; different in their form, different in their habits, and unlike in all the particulars of their history.

In this tribe is to be found the Goat-sucker, which may be styled a nocturnal swallow; it is the largest of this kind, and is known by its tail, which is not forked, like that of the common swallow. It begins its flight at evening, and makes a loud singular noise, like the whur of a spinning-wheel. To this also belongs the House-swallow, which is too well known to need a description: the Martin, inferior in size to the former, and the tail much less forked; it differs also in its nest, which is covered at top, while that of the house-

swallow is open : and the Swift, rather larger than the house-swallow, with all the toes standing forward ; in which it differs from the rest of its kind. All these resemble each other so strongly, that it is not without difficulty the smaller kinds are known asunder.

These are all known by their very large mouths, which, when they fly, are always kept open ; they are not less remarkable for their short slender feet, which scarcely are able to support the weight of their bodies ; their wings are of immoderate extent for their bulk ; their plumage is glossed with a rich purple ; and their note is a slight twittering, which they seldom exert but upon the wing.—This peculiar conformation seems attended with a similar peculiarity of manners. Their food is insects, which they always pursue flying. For this reason, during fine weather, when the insects are most likely to be abroad, the swallows are for ever upon the wing, and seem pursuing their prey with amazing swiftness and agility. All smaller animals, in some measure, find safety by winding and turning, when they endeavour to avoid the greater ; the lark thus evades the pursuit of the hawk, and man the crocodile. In this manner, insects upon the wing endeavour to avoid the swallow ; but this bird is admirably fitted by nature to pursue them through their shortest turnings. Besides a great length of wing, it is also provided with a long tail, which like a rudder, turns it in its most rapid motions ; and thus, while it is possessed of the greatest swiftness, it is also possessed of the most extreme agility.

Early, therefore, in the spring when the returning sun begins to rouse the insect tribe from their annual state of torpidity ; when the gnat and the beetle put off their earthly robes, and venture into air ; the swallow then is seen returning from its long migration beyond the ocean, and making its way feebly to the shore. At first, with the timidity of a stranger, it appears but seldom, and flies but slowly and heavily along. As the weather grows warmer, and its insect supply increases, it then gathers greater strength and activity. But it sometimes happens that a rainy season, by repelling the insects, stints the swallow in its food ; the poor bird is then seen slowly skimming along the surface of the ground, and often resting after a flight of a few minutes. In general, however, it keeps on the wing, and moving with a rapidity

that nothing can escape. When the weather promises to be fair, the insect tribe feel the genial influence, and make bolder flights; at which time the swallows follow them in their aerial journies, and often rises to imperceptible heights in the pursuit. When the weather is likely to be foul, the insects feel the first notices of it; and from the swallow's following low we are often apprized of the approaching change.

When summer is fairly begun, and more than a sufficient supply for sustaining the wants of nature every where offers, the swallow then begins to think of forming a progeny. The nest is built with great industry and art, particularly by the common swallow, which builds it on the tops of chimneys. The martin sticks it to the eaves of houses. The goat-sucker, as we are told, builds it on the bare ground. This nest is built with mud from some neighbouring brook, well tempered with the bill, moistened with water, for the better adhesion; and still farther kept firm, by long grass and fibres: within it is lined with goose-feathers, which are ever the warmest and the neatest. The martin covers its nest at top, and has a door to enter at; the swallow leaves her's quite open. But our European nests are nothing to be compared with those the swallow builds on the coasts of China and Coromandel; the description of which I will give in the plain honest phrase of Willoughby. "On the sea-coast of the kingdom of China," says he, "a sort of party-coloured birds, of the shape of swallows, at a certain season of the year, which is their breeding time, come out of the midland country to the rocks, and from the foam or froth of the sea-water, dashing against the bottom of the rocks, gather a certain clammy glutinous matter, perchance the spawn of whales and other young fishes, of which they build their nests, wherein they lay their eggs and hatch their young. These nests the Chinese pluck from the rocks, and bring them in great numbers into the East Indies to sell. They are esteemed, by gluttons, as great delicacies; who, dissolving them in chicken or mutton broth, are very fond of them; far before oysters, mushrooms, or other dainty and liquorish morsels."* What a pity this luxury hath not

* Sir George Staunton, in his account of the embassy to China, says, that in the Cass, a small island near Sumatra, were found two caverns, running horizontally into the side of the rock; in which were a number of these nests so much prized by the Chinese epicures. "They seemed

been introduced among us, and then our great feasters might be enabled to eat a little more!

The swallow usually lays from five to six eggs, of a white colour, speckled with red; and sometimes breeds twice a year. When the young brood are excluded, the swallow supplies them very plentifully, the first brood particularly, when she finds herself capable of producing two broods in a year. This happens when the parents come early, when the season is peculiarly mild, and when they begin to pair soon. Sometimes they find a difficulty in rearing even a single nest, particularly when the weather has been severe, or their nests have been robbed in the beginning of the season. By these accidents, this important task is sometimes deferred to the middle of September.

At the latter end of September they leave us; and for a few days previous to their departure assemble in vast flocks, on house-tops, as if deliberating on the fatiguing journey that lay before them. This is no slight undertaking, as their flight is directed to Congo, Senegal, and along the whole Morocco shore. There are some, however, left behind in this general expedition, that do not depart till eight or ten days after the rest. These are chiefly the latter weakly broods, which are not yet in a condition to set out. They are sometimes even too feeble to venture till the setting in of winter; while their parents vainly exhort them to efforts which instinct assures them they are incapable of performing. Thus it often happens that the wretched little families, being compelled to stay, perish the first cold weather that comes; while the tender parents share the fate of their offspring, and die with the new-fledged brood.

Those that migrate are first observed to arrive in Africa, as Adanson assures us, about the beginning of October. They are thought to have performed their fatiguing journey in the space of seven days. They are sometimes seen, when

to be composed of fine filaments cemented together by a transparent viscous matter, not unlike what is left by the foam of the sea, or those gelatinous animal substances found floating on every coast. The nests adhere together, and to the sides of the cavern, mostly in rows without any break or interruption. The birds that build these nests are small gray swallow, with bellies of a dirty white. These nests are a considerable object of traffic among the Javenese, many of whom are employed in it from their infancy; and as the operation of taking them is attended with much danger, many lives are lost in that employment.

interrupted by contrary winds, wavering in their course far off at sea, and lighting upon whatever ship they find in their passage. They then seem spent with famine and fatigue; yet still they boldly venture, when refreshed by a few hours rest, to renew their flight, and continue the course which they had been steering before.

These are facts proved by incontestible authority; yet it is a doubt whether all swallows migrate in this manner, or whether there may not be some species of this animal that, though externally alike, are so internally different as to be very differently affected by the approach of winter. We are assured from many, and these not contemptible witnesses, that swallows hide themselves in holes under ground, joined close together, bill against bill, and feet against feet. Some inform us, that they have seen them taken out of the water, and even from under the ice, in bunches, where they are asserted to pass the winter, without motion. Reaumur, who particularly interested himself in this inquiry, received several accounts of bundles of swallows being thus found in quarries, and under the water. These men, therefore, have a right to some degree of assent, and are not to lose all credit from our ignorance of what they aver.

All, however, that we have hitherto dissected, are formed within like other birds; and seem to offer no observable variety. Indeed, that they do not hide themselves under water, has been pretty well proved by the noted experiment of Frisch, who tied several threads, dyed in water-colours, round the legs of a great number of swallows that were preparing for their departure; these, upon their return the ensuing summer, brought their threads back with them, no way damaged in their colour; which they most certainly would, if, during the winter, they had been steeped in water: yet still this is a subject on which we must suspend our assent, as Kleim, the naturalist, has brought such a number of proofs in defence of his opinion, that swallows are torpid in winter, as even the most incredulous must allow to have some degree of probability.

CHAP. VI.

OF THE HUMMING-BIRD, AND ITS VARIETIES.

HAVING given some history of the manners of the most remarkable birds of which accounts can be obtained, I might now go to a very extensive tribe, remarkable for the splendour and the variety of their plumage: but the description of the colours of a beautiful bird, has nothing in it that can inform or entertain; it rather excites a longing, which it is impossible for words to satisfy. Naturalists, indeed, have endeavoured to satisfy this desire by coloured prints; but, beside that these at best give only a faint resemblance of nature, and are a very indifferent kind of painting, the bird itself has a thousand beauties that the most exquisite artist is incapable of imitating. They, for instance, who imagine they have a complete idea of the beauty of the little tribe of manikin birds, from the pictures we have of them, will find themselves deceived, when they compare their draughts with nature. The shining greens, the changeable purples, and the glossy reds, are beyond the reach of the pencil; and very far beyond the coloured print, which is but a poor substitute to painting. I have therefore declined entering into a minute description of foreign birds of the sparrow kind; as sounds would never convey an adequate idea of colours.

There is one species, however, that I will conclude the history of this class with; as, though the least, it will certainly be allowed the most beautiful of all others. In quadrupeds, the smallest animals are noxious, ugly, and loathsome; the smallest of birds are the most beautiful, innocent, and sportive. Of all those that flutter in the garden, or paint the landscape, the Humming-bird is the most delightful to look upon, and the most inoffensive.

Of this charming little animal there are six or seven varieties, from the size of a small wren down to that of an humble-bee. An European could never have supposed a bird existing so very small, and yet completely furnished out with a bill, feathers, wings, and intestines, exactly resembling those of the largest kind. A bird not so big as the end of one's little finger would probably be supposed but a creature of imagination, were it not seen in infinite numbers,

and as frequent as butterflies in a summer's day, sporting in the fields of America, from flower to flower, and extracting their sweets with its little bill.

The smallest humming-bird is about the size of a hazelnut. The feathers on its wings and tail are black; but those on its body, and under its wings, are of a greenish brown, with a fine red cast, or gloss, which no silk or velvet can imitate. It has a small crest on its head, green at the bottom, and, as it were, gilded at the top; and which sparkles in the sun like a little star in the middle of its forehead. The bill is black, straight, slender, and of the length of a small pin. The larger humming-bird is near half as big as the common wren, and without a crest on its head; but, to make amends, it is covered, from the throat half way down the belly, with changeable crimson-coloured feathers, that, in different lights, change to a variety of beautiful colours, much like an opal. The heads of both are small, with very little round eyes, as black as jet.

It is inconceivable how much these add to the high finishing and beauty of a rich luxurious western landscape. As soon as the sun is risen, the humming-birds, of different kinds, are seen fluttering about the flowers, without ever lighting upon them. Their wings are in such rapid motion, that it is impossible to discern their colours, except by their glittering. They are never still, but continually in motion, visiting flower after flower, and extracting its honey as if with a kiss. For this purpose they are furnished with a forked tongue, that enters the cup of the flowers, and extracts its nectared tribute. Upon this alone they subsist. The rapid motion of their wings brings out a humming sound, from whence they have their name; for whatever divides the air swiftly, must thus produce a murmur.

The nests of these birds are not less curious than the rest; they are suspended in the air, at the point of the twigs of an orange, a pomegranate, or a citron-tree; sometimes even in houses, if they find a small and convenient twig for the purpose. The female is the architect, while the male goes in quest of materials; such as cotton, fine moss, and the fibres of vegetables. Of these materials a nest is composed, of about the size of a hen's egg cut in two, admirably contrived, and warmly lined with cotton. They lay two eggs at a time, and never more, about the size of small peas, and as white

as snow, with here and there a yellow speck. The male and the female sit upon the nest by turns; but the female takes to herself the greatest share. She seldom quits the nest, except a few minutes in the morning and evening, when the dew is upon the flowers, and their honey in perfection. During this short interval, the male takes her place; for, as the egg is so small, the exposing it ever so short a time to the weather would be apt to injure its contents, the surface exposed being so great in comparison to the bulk. The time of incubation continues twelve days; at the end of which the young ones appear, much about the size of a blue-bottle fly. They are at first bare; by degrees they are covered with down; and at last feathers succeed, but less beautiful at first than those of the old ones.

“Father Labat’s companion in the mission to America, found the nest of a humming-bird, in a shed that was near the dwelling-house, and took it in at a time when the young ones were about fifteen or twenty days old; he then placed them in a cage at his chamber-window, to be amused by their sportive flutterings; but he was soon surprised to see the old ones, that came and fed their brood regularly every hour in the day. By these means they themselves soon grew so tame that they seldom quitted the chamber; but without any constraint came to live with their young ones. All four have frequently come to perch upon their master’s hand, chirruping as if they had been at liberty abroad. He fed them with a very fine clear paste, made of wine, biscuit, and sugar: they thrust their tongues into this paste, till they were satisfied, and then fluttered and chirruped about the room. I never beheld any thing more agreeable,” continues he, “than this lovely little family that had taken possession of my companion’s chamber, and that flew out and in just as they thought proper; but were ever attentive to the voice of their master, when he called them. In this manner they lived with him for above six months; but at a time when he expected to see a new colony formed, he unfortunately forgot to tie up their cage to the cieling at night, to preserve them from the rats, and he found they were devoured in the morning.”

These birds on the continent of America, continue to flutter the year round; as their food, which is the honey

of flowers, never forsakes them in those warm latitudes where they are found. But it is otherwise in the islands of the Antilles, where, when the winter season approaches, they retire, and, as some say, continue in a torpid state during the severity of that season. At Surinam and Jamaica, where they constantly have flowers, these beautiful birds are never known to disappear.

It is a doubt whether or not these birds have a continued note of singing. All travellers agree, that, beside the humming noise produced by their wings, they have a little interrupted chirrup; but Labat asserts, that they have a most pleasing melancholy melody in their voices, though small, and proportioned to the organs which produce it. It is very probable that, in different places, their notes are also different; and as there are some that continue torpid all the winter, there may likewise be some with agreeable voices, though the rest may in general be silent.

The Indians formerly made great use of this pretty bird's plumage, in adorning their belts and head-dress. The children take them in the fields upon rings smeared with bird-lime: they approach the place where the birds are flying, and twirling their rings in the air, so allure them, either by the colour or the sound, that the simple little creature comes to rest upon the ring, and is seized. They are then instantly killed and gutted, and hung up in the chimney to dry. Those who take greater care, dry them in a stove, which is not so likely to injure the plumage as the foregoing method. Their beautiful feathers were once the ornament of the highest rank of savage nobility; but at present they take the bird rather for the purpose of selling it as a curiosity to the Europeans, than that of ornament for themselves. All the taste for savage finery is wearing out fast, even among the Americans. They now begin to adopt, if not the dresses of Europe, at least the materials of which they are composed. The wandering warrior is far from thinking himself fine at present with his bow and his feathered crown: his ambition reaches to higher ornaments; a gun, a blue shirt, and a blanket.

BOOK VI.

OF BIRDS OF THE CRANE KIND.



CHAP. I.

OF BIRDS OF THE CRANE KIND IN GENERAL.

THE progressions of Nature from one class of beings to another, are always by slow and almost imperceptible degrees. She has peopled the woods and the fields with a variety of the most beautiful birds; and, to leave no part of her extensive territories untenanted, she has stocked the waters with its feathered inhabitants also: she has taken the same care in providing for the wants of her animals in this element, as she has done with respect to those of the other; she has used as much precaution to render water-fowl fit for swimming, as she did in forming land-fowl for flight; she has defended their feathers with a natural oil, and united their toes by a webbed membrane; by which contrivances they have at once security and motion. But between the classes of land-birds that shun the water, and of water-fowl that are made for swimming and living on it, she has formed a very numerous tribe of birds, that seem to partake of a middle nature; that, with divided toes, seemingly fitted to live upon land, are at the same time furnished with appetites that chiefly attach them to the waters. These can properly be called neither land-birds nor water-fowl, as they provide all their sustenance from watery places, and yet are unqualified to seek it in those depths where it is often found in greatest plenty.

This class of birds, of the crane kind, are to be distinguished from others rather by their appetites than their conformation. Yet even in this respect they seem to be sufficiently discriminated by nature: as they are to live among the waters, yet are incapable of swimming in them, most of them have long legs, fitted for wading in shallow waters, or long bills proper for groping in them.

Every bird of this kind, habituated to marshy places, may be known, if not by the length of its legs, at least by the scaly surface of them. Those who have observed the legs of a snipe or a woodcock, will easily perceive my meaning; and how different the surface of the skin that covers them is from that of the pigeon or the partridge. Most birds of this kind also, are bare of feathers half way up the thigh; at least, in all of them, above the knee.— Their long habits of wading in the waters, and having their legs continually in moisture, prevents the growth of feathers on those parts; so that there is a surprising difference between the legs of a crane, naked of feather almost up to the body, and the falcon, booted almost to the very toes.

The bill also is very distinguishable in most of this class. It is, in general, longer than that of other birds, and in some finely fluted on every side; while at the point it is possessed of extreme sensibility, and furnished with nerves, for the better feeling their food at the bottom of marshes, where it cannot be seen. Some birds of this class are thus fitted with every convenience: they have long legs, for wading; long necks, for stooping; long bills, for searching; and nervous points, for feeling. Others are not so amply provided for; as some have long bills, but legs of no great length; and others have long necks, but very short legs. It is a rule which universally holds, that where the bird's legs are long, the neck is also long in proportion. It would indeed be an incurable defect in the bird's conformation, to be lifted upon stilts above its food, without being furnished with an instrument to reach it.

If we consider the natural power of this class, in a comparative view, they will seem rather inferior to those of every other tribe. Their nests are more simple than those of the sparrow; and their methods of obtaining food less ingenious than those of the falcon; the pie exceeds them in cunning;

and though they have all the voraciousness of the poultry tribe, they want their fecundity. None of this kind, therefore, have been taken into man's society, or under his protection; they are neither caged, like the nightingale; nor kept tame, like the turkey; but lead a life of precarious liberty, in fens and marshes, at the edges of lakes, and along the sea-shore. They all live upon fish or insects, one or two only excepted; even those that are called *mudsuckers*, such as the snipe and the woodcock, it is more than probable, grope the bottom of marshy places only for such insects as are deposited there by their kind, and live in a vermicular state, in pools and plashes, till they take wing, and become flying insects.

All this class, therefore, that are fed upon insects, their food being easily digestible, are good to be eaten; while those who live entirely upon fish, abounding in oil, acquire in their flesh the rancidity of their diet, and are, in general, unfit for our tables. To savages, indeed, and sailors on a long voyage, every thing that has life seems good to be eaten; and we often find them recommending those animals as dainties, which they themselves would spurn at after a course of good living. Nothing is more common in their journals than such accounts as these—"This day we shot a fox—pretty good eating: this day we shot a heron—pretty good eating: and this day we killed a turtle"—which they rank with the heron and the fox, as "pretty good eating." Their accounts, therefore, of the flesh of these birds, are not to be depended upon; and when they cry up the heron or the stork of other countries as luxurious food, we must always attend to the state of their appetites who give the character.

In treating of this class of birds, it will be best to observe the simplest method possible; neither to load the memory with numerous distinctions, nor yet confuse the imagination by a total want of arrangement. I will therefore describe some of the larger sorts separately; as, in a history of birds, each of these demands peculiar distinction. The crane, the stork, the Balearic crane, the heron, the bittern, with some others, may require a separate history. Some particular tribes may next offer, that may very naturally be classed together; and as for all the smaller and least remarkable sorts, they may be grouped into one general description.

CHAP. II.

THE CRANE.

THERE is something extraordinary in the different accounts we have of this bird's size and dimensions. Willoughby and Pennant make the crane from five to six feet long, from the tip to the tail. Other accounts say, that it is above five feet high; and others, that it is as tall as a man. From the many which I myself had seen, I own this imputed magnitude surprised me; as from memory I was convinced, they could neither be so long nor so tall. Indeed, a bird, the body of which is not larger than that of a turkey-hen, and acknowledged on all hands not to weigh above ten pounds, cannot easily be supposed to be almost as long as an ostrich. Brisson, however, seems to give this bird its real dimensions, when he describes it as something less than the brown stork, about three feet high, and about four from the tip to the tail. Still, however, the numerous testimonies of its superior size are not to be totally rejected; and, perhaps, that from which Brisson took his dimensions, was one of the smallest of the kind.

The crane, taking its dimensions from him, is exactly three feet four inches from the tip to the tail, and four feet from the head to the toe. It is a tall slender bird, with a long neck and long legs. The top of the head is covered with black bristles, and the back of it is bald and red, which sufficiently distinguishes this bird from the stork, to which it is very nearly allied in size and figure. The plumage, in general, is ash-coloured; and there are two large tufts of feathers, that spring from the pinion of each wing. These bear a resemblance to hair, and are finely curled at the ends, which the bird has a power of erecting and depressing at pleasure. Gesner says, that these feathers, in his time, used to be set in gold, and worn as ornaments in caps.

Such are the dimensions of a bird, concerning which, not to mention modern times, there have been more fables propagated than of any other. It is a bird with which all the ancient writers are familiar; and, in describing it, they have not failed to mix imagination with history. From the policy of the cranes, they say, we are to look for an idea of the most perfect republic amongst ourselves; from their tenderness to their decrepit parents, which they take care to nourish, to cherish, and support when flying, we are to learn lessons of filial piety; but particularly from their conduct in fighting with the pigmies of Ethiopia, we are to receive our maxims in the art of war. In early times, the history of Nature fell to the lot of poets only, and certainly none could describe it so well; but it is a part of their province to embellish also; and when this agreeable science was claimed by a more sober class of people, they were obliged to take the accounts of things as they found them; and, in the present instance, fable ran down blended with truth to posterity.

In these accounts, therefore, there is some foundation of truth; yet much more has been added by fancy. The crane is certainly a very social bird, and they are seldom seen alone. Their usual method of flying or sitting is in flocks of fifty or sixty together; and while a part feed, the rest stand like centinels upon duty. The fable of their supporting their aged parents, may have arisen from their strict connubial affection; and as for their fighting with the pigmies, it may not be improbable but that they have boldly withstood the invasions of monkeys coming to rob their nests; for, in this case, as the crane lives upon vegetables, it is not probable that it would be the first aggressor.

However this be, the crane is a wandering, sociable bird, that, for the most part, subsists upon vegetables; and is known in every country of Europe, except our own. There is no part of the world, says Bellonius, where the fields are cultivated, that the crane does not come in with the husbandman for a share in the harvest. As they are birds of passage, they are seen to depart, and return regularly at those seasons when their provision invites or repels them. They generally leave Europe about the latter end of autumn, and return in the beginning of summer. In

the inland parts of the continent, they are seen crossing the country in flocks of fifty or a hundred, making from the northern regions towards the south. In these migrations, however, they are not so resolutely bent upon going forward, but that if a field of corn offers in their way, they will stop a while to regale upon it: on such occasions they do incredible damage, chiefly in the night; and the husbandman, who lays down in joyful expectation, rises in the morning to see his fields laid entirely waste by an enemy, whose march is too swift for his vengeance to overtake.

Our own country is free from their visits; not but that they were formerly known in this island, and held in great estimation for the delicacy of their flesh; there was even a penalty upon such as destroyed their eggs; but, at present, they never go so far out of their way. Cultivation and populousness go hand in hand; and though our fields may offer them a greater plenty, yet it is so guarded that the birds find the venture greater than the enjoyment; and probably we are much better off by their absence than their company. Whatever their flesh might once have been, when, as Plutarch tells us, cranes were blinded and kept in coops, to be fattened for the tables of the great in Rome; or, as they were brought up, stuffed with mint and rue, to the tables of our nobles at home; at present, they are considered all over Europe as wretched eating. The flesh is fibrous and dry, requiring much preparation to make it palatable; and even after every art, it is fit only for the stomachs of strong and labouring people.

The cold Arctic region seems to be this bird's favourite abode. They come down into the more southern parts of Europe, rather as visitants than inhabitants: yet it is not well known in what manner they portion out their time, to the different parts of the world. The migrations of the fieldfare or thrush, are obvious and well known; they go northward or southward, in one simple track; when their food fails them here, they have but one region to go to. But it is otherwise with the crane; he changes place, like a wanderer: he spends the autumn in Europe; he then flies off, probably to some more southern climate, to enjoy a part of the winter; returns to Europe in the spring; crosses up to the north in summer; visits those lakes that are

never dry ; and then comes down again, to make depredations upon our cultivated grounds, in autumn. Thus, Gesner assures us, that the cranes usually begin to quit Germany, from about the eleventh of September to the seventeenth of October ; from thence they are seen flying southward by thousands ; and Redi tells us, they arrive in Tuscany a short time after. There they tear up the fields, newly sown, for the grain just committed to the ground, and do great mischief. It is to be supposed, that, in the severity of winter, they go southward, still nearer the line. They again appear in the fields of Pisa, regularly about the twentieth of February, to anticipate the spring.

In these journeys, it is amazing to conceive the heights to which they ascend when they fly. Their note is the loudest of all other birds ; and that is often heard in the clouds, when the bird itself is entirely unseen. As it is light for its size, and spreads a large expanse of wing, it is capable of floating at the greatest height, where the air is lightest ; and as it secures its safety, and is entirely out of the reach of man, it flies in tracts which would be too fatiguing for any other birds to move forward in.

In these aerial journeys, though unseen themselves, they have the distinctest vision of every object below. They govern and direct their flight by their cries ; and exhort each other to proceed or to descend, when a fit opportunity offers for depredation. Their voice, as was observed, is the loudest of all the feathered tribe ; and its peculiar clangor arises from the very extraordinary length and contortion of the windpipe. In quadrupeds, the windpipe is short, and the glottis, or cartilages that form the voice, are at that end of it which is next the mouth ; in water-fowl, the windpipe is longer, but the cartilages that form the voice are at the other end, which lies down in their belly. By this means they have much louder voices, in proportion to their size, than any other animal whatever ; for the note when formed below, is reverberated through all the rings of the windpipe, till it reaches the air. But the voice of the duck or the goose, is nothing to be compared to that of the crane, whose windpipe is not only made in the same manner with theirs, but is above twenty times as long. Nature seems to have bestowed much pains in lengthening

out this organ. From the outside, it enters through the flesh into the breast-bone, which hath a great cavity within to receive it. There being thrice reflected, it goes out again at the same hole, and so turns down to the lungs, and thus enters the body a second time. The loud clangorous sound which the bird is thus enabled to produce, is, when near, almost deafening: however, it is particularly serviceable to the animal itself, either during its migrations, or its stay; by it the flock is encouraged in their journies; and if, while they are feeding, which is usually performed in profound silence, they are invaded on any side, the bird that first perceives the danger is sure to sound the alarm, and all are speedily upon the wing.

As they rise but heavily, they are very shy birds, and seldom let the fowler approach them. Their depredations are usually made in the darkest nights; at which time they enter a field of corn, and trample it down, as if it had been crossed over by a regiment of soldiers. On other occasions, they choose some extensive solitary marsh, where they range themselves all day, as if they were in deliberation; and not having that grain which is most to their appetites, wade the marshes for insects and other food, which they can procure with less danger.

Corn is their favourite food; but there is scarcely any other that comes amiss to them. Redi, who opened several, found the stomach of one full of the herb called *dandelion*; that of another was filled with beans; a third had a great quantity of clover in its stomach; while that of two others was filled with earth-worms and beetles; in some he found lizards and sea-fish; in others, snails, grass, and pebbles, swallowed perhaps for medicinal purposes. It seems, therefore, that these birds are easily supplied; and that they are noxious to corn-fields but on some particular occasions.

In general it is a peaceful bird, both in its own society, and with respect to those of the forest. Though so large in appearance, a little falcon pursues, and often disables it. The method is, with those who are fond of hawking, to fly several hawks together against it; which the crane endeavours to avoid, by flying up perpendicularly, till the air becomes too thin to support it any higher. The hawk, however, still bears it company; and though less fitted for floating in so thin a medium, yet, possessed of greater rapidity, it

still gains the ascendancy. They both often rise out of sight; but soon the spectator, who keeps his eye fixed above, perceives them, like two specks, beginning to appear: they gather on his eye for a little space, and shortly after come tumbling perpendicularly together, with great animosity on the side of the hawk, and a loud screaming on that of the crane. Thus driven to extremity, and unable to fly, the poor animal throws itself upon its back, and, in that situation, makes a most desperate defence, till the sportsman coming up, generally puts an end to the contest with its life.

It was once the barbarous custom to breed up cranes to be thus baited; and young ones were taken from the nest, to be trained up for this cruel diversion. It is an animal easily tamed; and, if we can believe Albertus Magnus, has a particular affection for man. This quality, however, was not sufficient to guard it from being made the victim of his fierce amusements. The female, which is easily distinguished from the male, by not being bald behind as he is, never lays above two eggs at a time; being like those of a goose, but of a bluish colour. The young ones are soon fit to fly, and then the parents forsake them to shift for themselves; but, before this time, they are led forth to the places where their food is most easily found. Though yet unfledged, they run with such swiftness that a man cannot easily overtake them. We are told, that as they grow old, their plumage becomes darker; and, as a proof of their longevity, Aldrovandus assures us, that a friend of his kept one tame for above forty years.

Whatever may have been the disposition of the great, the vulgar of every country, to this day, bear the crane a compassionate regard. It is possible the ancient prejudices in its favour, which once having been planted are eradicated but slowly, may still continue to operate. In some countries, it is considered as an heinous offence to kill a crane; and though the legislator declines to punish, yet the people do not fail to resent the injury. The crane, they, in some measure, consider as the prophet of the season: upon its approach or delay they regulate the periods of their rural economy. If their favourite bird comes early in the season, they expect a plentiful summer; if he is slow in his visits, they then prepare for an unfavourable spring. Whatever

wisdom there may be in despising the prejudices of the vulgar, there is but little in condemning them. They have generally had their origin in good motives; and it should never be our endeavours to suppress any tender emotions of friendship or pity in those hard breasts that are, in general, unsusceptible of either.

CHAP. III.

THE STORK.

If we regard the Stork externally only, we shall be very apt to confound it with the crane. It is of the same size; it has the same formation as to the bill, neck, legs, and body, except that it is something more corpulent. Its differences are but very slight; such as the colour, which, in the crane, is ash and black, but in the stork is white and brown. The nails of the toes of the stork also are very peculiar; not being clawed like those of other birds, but flat like the nails of a man.

These, however, are but very slight differences; and its true distinctions are to be taken rather from its manners than its form. The crane has a loud piercing voice; the stork is silent, and produces no other noise than the clacking of its under-chap against the upper: the crane has a strange convolution of the wind-pipe through the breast-bone; the stork's is formed in the usual manner: the crane feeds mostly upon vegetables and grain; the stork preys entirely upon frogs, fishes, birds, and serpents: the crane avoids towns and populous places; the stork lives always in or near them: the crane lays but two eggs; and the stork generally four. These are distinctions fully sufficient to mark the species, notwithstanding the similitude of their form.

Storks are birds of passage, like the former; but it is hard to say whence they come, or whither they go. When they withdraw from Europe, they all assemble on a particular day, and never leave one of their company behind them. They take their flight in the night; which is the reason the way they go has never been observed. They generally return into Europe in the middle of march, and make their nests

on the tops of chimneys and houses, as well as of high trees. The females lay from two to four eggs, of the size and colour of those of geese; and the male and female sit upon them by turns. They are a month in hatching; and when their young are excluded, they are particularly solicitous for their safety.*.

As the food of these birds consists, in a great measure, of frogs and serpents, it is not to be wondered at that different nations have paid them a particular veneration. The Dutch are very solicitous for the preservation of the stork in every part of their republic. This bird seems to have taken refuge among their towns; and builds on the tops of their houses without any molestation. There it is seen resting familiarly in the streets, and protected as well by the laws as the prejudices of the people. They have even got an opinion that it will only live in a republic; and that story of its filial piety, first falsely propagated of the crane, has, in part, been ascribed to the stork. But it is not in republics alone that the stork is seen to reside, as there are few towns on the continent, in low marshy situations, but have the stork as an inmate among them; as well the despotic princes of Germany, as the little republics of Italy.

The stork seems a general favourite even among the moderns; but with the ancient Egyptians their regard was carried even to adoration. This enlightened people, who worshipped the Deity in his creatures, paid divine honours to the ibis, as is universally known. It has been usually supposed that the ancient ibis is the same with that which goes at present by the same name; a bird of the stork kind, of about the size of a curlew, all over black, with a bill very thick in the beginning, but ending in a point, for the better seizing

* Storks take their departure from Europe in the autumn, and pass into Egypt and the marshes of Barbary: there they enjoy a second summer, and there they pair, lay again, and bring up a second brood. Mrs. Starke, in her *Letters on Italy*, mentions a singular instance of the sagacity of these birds. "A wild stork was brought by a farmer, in the neighbourhood of Hamburg, into his poultry-yard, to be the companion of a tame one he had long kept there: but the tame stork disliking a rival, fell upon the poor stranger, and beat him so unmercifully, that he was compelled to take wing, and escaped with difficulty. About four months afterwards, however, he returned to the poultry-yard, recovered of his wounds, and attended by three other storks; who no sooner alighted, than they all together fell upon the tame stork, and killed him."

its prey, which is caterpillars, locusts, and serpents. But however useful the modern ibis may be in ridding Egypt, where it resides, of the vermin and venomous animals that infest it; yet it is much doubted whether this be the same ibis to which the ancients paid their adoration. Maillet, the French consul at Cairo, observes, that it is very hard to determine what bird the ancient ibis certainly was, because there are cranes, storks, hawks, kites, and falcons, that are all equally enemies to serpents, and devour a vast number. He farther adds, that in the month of May, when the winds begin to blow from the internal parts of Africa, there are several sorts of birds that come down from Upper Egypt, from whence they are driven by the rains, in search of a better habitation, and that it is then they do this country such signal services. Nor does the figure of this bird, hieroglyphically represented on their pillars, mark it sufficiently to make the distinction. Besides, the modern ibis is not peculiar to Egypt, as it is to be seen but at certain seasons of the year; whereas we are informed by Pliny, that this bird was seen no where else. It is thought, therefore, that the true ibis is a bird of the vulture kind, described above, and called by some the *capon of Pharaoh*, which not only is a devourer of serpents, but will follow the caravans that go to Mecca, to feed upon the offal of the animals that are killed on the journey.*

CHAP. IV.

OF THE BALEARIC AND OTHER FOREIGN CRANES.

HAVING ended the last chapter with doubts concerning the ibis, we shall begin this with doubts concerning the

* The true ibis of the ancients differs from the stork, in having a long, awl-shaped, slightly curved bill, without the furrow from the nostrils observable in the stork: the face is likewise destitute of feathers; and it has a naked jugular pouch. The body is of a whitish rufous colour, with black quill-feathers; the face is red, and the bill pale yellow. It inhabits, in vast flocks, the lower parts of Egypt, which, after the inundation of the Nile, is infested with swarms of reptiles and noxious insects: these it destroys with great expedition, and is for this reason held sacred by the Egyptians. It is nearly forty inches long, and rests in an erect posture.

Balearic Crane. Pliny has described a bird of the crane kind with a topping resembling that of the green woodpecker. This bird for a long time continued unknown, till we became acquainted with the birds of tropical climates, when one of the crane kind with a topping was brought into Europe, and described by Aldrovandus as Pliny's Balearic Crane. Hence these birds, which have since been brought from Africa and the East in numbers, have received the name of Balearic Cranes, but without any just foundation. The real Balearic Crane of Pliny seems to be the lesser ash-coloured heron, with a topping of narrow white feathers; or perhaps the egret, with two long feathers that fall back from the sides of the head. The bird that we are about to describe under the name of the Belearic Crane, was unknown to the ancients, and the heron or egret ought to be reinstated in their just title to that name.

When we see a very extraordinary animal, we are naturally led to suppose that there must be something also remarkable in its history, to correspond with the singularity of its figure. But it often happens that history fails on those occasions where we most desire information. In the present instance, in particular, no bird presents to the eye a more whimsical figure than this, which we must be content to call the *Balearic Crane*. It is pretty nearly of the shape and size of the ordinary crane, with long legs and a long neck, like others of the kind; but the bill is shorter, and the colour of the feathers of a dark greenish gray. The head and throat form the most striking part of this bird's figure. On the head is seen, standing up, a thick round crest, made of bristles, spreading every way, and resembling rays standing out in different directions. The longest of these rays are about three inches and a half, and they are all topped with a kind of black tassels, which give them a beautiful appearance. The sides of the head and cheeks are bare, whitish, and edged with red; while underneath the throat hangs a kind of bag or wattle, like that of a cock, but not divided into two. To give this odd composition a higher finishing, the eye is large and staring; the pupil black and big, surrounded with a gold-coloured iris, that completes the bird's very singular appearance.

From such a peculiar figure, we might be led to wish for

a minute history of its manners; but of these we can give but slight information. This bird comes from the coast of Africa and the Cape de Verd Islands. As it runs, it stretches out its wings, and goes very swiftly, otherwise its usual motion is very slow. In their domestic state, they walk very deliberately among other poultry, and suffer themselves to be approached (at least it was so with that I saw) by every spectator. They never roost in houses; but about night, when they are disposed to go to rest, they search out some high wall, on which they perch in the manner of a peacock. Indeed, they so much resemble that bird in manners and disposition, that some have described them by the name of the *sea peacock*: and Ray has been inclined to rank them in the same family. But though their voice and roosting be similar, their food, which is entirely upon greens, vegetables, and barley, seems to make some difference.

In this chapter of foreign birds of the crane kind, it will be proper to mention the Jabiru and the Jabiru Guacu, both natives of Brazil. Of these great birds of the crane kind we know but little, except the general outline of their figure, and the enormous bills which we often see preserved in the cabinets of the curious. The bill of the latter is red, and thirteen inches long; the bill of the former is black, and is found to be eleven. Neither of them, however, are of a size proportioned to their immoderate length of bill.—The jabiru guacu is not above the size of a common stork, while the jabiru with the smallest bill exceeds the size of a swan. They are both covered with white feathers, except the head and neck, that are naked; and their principal difference is in the size of the body and the make of the bill; the lower clasp of the jabiru guacu being broad, and bending upwards.

A bird still more extraordinary may be added to this class, called the *anhima*, and, like the two former, a native of Brazil. This is a water-fowl of the rapacious kind, and bigger than a swan. The head, which is small for the size of the body, bears a black bill, which is not above two inches long: but what distinguishes it in particular is a horn growing from the forehead as long as the bill, and bending forward like that of the fabulous unicorn of the ancients. This horn is not much thicker than a crow-quill, as round as if it

were turned in a lathe, and of an ivory colour. But this is not the only instrument of battle this formidable bird carries; it seems to be armed at all points; for at the fore-part of each wing, at the second joint, spring two straight triangular spurs, about as thick as one's little finger: the foremost of these goads or spurs is above an inch long; the hinder is shorter, and both of a dusky colour. The claws also are long and sharp; the colour is black and white; and they cry terribly loud, sounding something like *Vyhoo*, *Vyhoo*. They are never found alone, but always in pairs: the cock and hen prowl together; and their fidelity is said to be such, that when one dies, the other never departs from the carcase, but dies with its companion. It makes its nest of clay, near the bodies of trees, upon the ground, of the shape of an oven.

One bird more may be subjoined to this class, not for the oddity of its figure, but the peculiarity of its manners. It is vulgarly called by our sailors the *buffoon bird*, and by the French the *demoiselle*, or *lady*. The same qualities have procured it these different appellations from two nations, who, on more occasions than this, look upon the same objects in very different lights. The peculiar gestures and contortions of this bird, the proper name of which is the *Numidian Crane*, are extremely singular; and the French, who are skilled in the arts of elegant gesticulation, consider all its motions as lady-like and graceful. Our English sailors, however, who have not entered so deeply into the dancing art, think, that while thus in motion, the bird cuts but a very ridiculous figure. It stoops, rises, lifts one wing, then another, turns round, sails forward, then back again; all which highly diverts our seamen; not imagining, perhaps, that all these contortions are but the awkward expression, not of the poor animal's pleasures, but its fears.

It is a very scarce bird; the plumage is of a leaden gray; but it is distinguished by fine white feathers, consisting of long fibres, which fall from the back of the head; about four inches long; while the fore-part of the neck is adorned with black feathers, composed of very fine, soft, and long fibres, that hang down upon the stomach, and give the bird a very graceful appearance. The ancients have described a buffoon bird; but there are many reasons

to believe that theirs is not the Numidian crane. It comes from that country from whence it has taken its name.

CHAP. V.

OF THE HERON, AND ITS VARIETIES.*

BIRDS of the Crane, the Stork, and the Heron kind, bear a very strong affinity to each other : and their differences are not easily discernible. As for the crane and the stork, they differ rather in their nature and internal conformation, than in their external figure ; but still they may be known asunder, as well by their colour as by the stork's claws, which are very peculiar, and more resembling a man's nails than the claws of a bird. The heron may be distinguished from both, as well by its size, which is much less, as by its bill, which in proportion is much longer ; but particularly by the middle claw on each foot, which is toothed like a saw, for the better seizing and holding its slippery prey. Should other marks fail, however, there is an anatomical distinction, in which herons differ from all other birds ; which is, that they have but one cæcum, and all other birds have two.

Of this tribe, Brisson has enumerated not less than forty-seven sorts, all differing in their size, figure, and plumage ; and with talents adapted to their place of residence, or their peculiar pursuits. But, how various soever the heron kind may be in their colours or their bills, they all seem possessed of the same manners, and have but one character of cowardice, rapacity, and indolence, yet insatiable hunger. Other birds are found to grow fat by an abundant supply of food ; but these, though excessively destructive and voracious, are ever found to have lean and carrion bodies, as if not even plenty were sufficient for their support.

The common heron is remarkably light, in proportion to its bulk, scarcely weighing three pounds and a half, yet it expands a breadth of wing which is five feet from tip to tip. Its bill is very long, being five inches from the point to the

* Cranes are distinguished by having the head bald ; Storks have the orbits round the eyes naked ; and Herons have the middle claw serrated internally.

base; its claws are long, sharp, and the middlemost toothed like a saw. Yet, thus armed as it appears for war, it is indolent and cowardly, and even flies at the approach of a sparrow-hawk. It was once the amusement of the great to pursue this timorous creature with the falcon: and heron-hawking was so favourite a diversion among our ancestors, that laws were enacted for the preservation of the species; and the person who destroyed their eggs was liable to a penalty of twenty shillings for each offence.

At present, however, the defects of the ill-judged policy of our ancestors, is felt by their posterity; for, as the amusement of hawking has given place to the more useful method of stocking fish-ponds, the heron is now become a most formidable enemy. Of all other birds, this commits the greatest devastation in fresh waters; and there is scarce a fish, though never so large, that he will not strike at and wound, though unable to carry it away. But the smaller fry are his chief subsistence; these, pursued by their larger fellows of the deep, are obliged to take refuge in shallow waters, where they find the heron a still more formidable enemy. His method is to wade as far as he can go into the water, and there patiently wait the approach of his prey, which, when it comes within sight, he darts upon with inevitable aim. In this manner he is found to destroy more in a week than an otter in three months. "I have seen a heron," says Willoughby, "that had been shot, that had seventeen carps in his belly at once, which he will digest in six or seven hours, and then to fishing again. I have seen a carp," continues he, "taken out of a heron's belly, nine inches and a half long. Several gentlemen who kept tame herons, to try what quantity one of them would eat in a day, have put several smaller roach and dace in a tub; and they have found him eat fifty in a day, one day with another. In this manner a single heron will destroy fifteen thousand carp in half a year."

So great are the digestive powers of this fresh-water tyrant, and so detrimental to those who stock ponds with fish. In general, he is seen taking his gloomy stand by the lake's side, as if meditating mischief, motionless, and gorged with plunder. His usual attitude on this occasion is to sink his long neck between his shoulders, and keep his head turned on one side, as if eyeing the pool more in-

tently. When the call of hunger returns, the toil of an hour or two is generally sufficient to fill his capacious stomach; and he retires long before night to his retreat in the woods. Early in the morning, however, he is seen assiduous at his usual occupation.

But, though in seasons of fine weather the heron can always find a plentiful supply; in cold or stormy seasons, his prey is no longer within reach: the fish that before came into the shallow water, now keep in the deep; as they find it to be the warmest situation. Frogs and lizards also seldom venture from their lurking places; and the heron is obliged to support himself upon his long habits of patience, and even to take up with the weeds that grow upon the water. At those times he contracts a consumptive disposition, which succeeding plenty is not able to remove; so that the meagre glutton spends his time between want and riot, and feels alternately the extremes of famine and excess. Hence, notwithstanding the care with which he takes his prey, and the amazing quantity he devours, the heron is always lean and emaciated; and though his crop be usually found full, yet his flesh is scarcely sufficient to cover the bones.

The heron usually takes his prey by wading into the water; yet it must not be supposed that he does not also take it upon the wing. In fact, much of his fishing is performed in this manner; but he never hovers over deep waters, as there his prey is enabled to escape him by sinking to the bottom. In shallow places he darts with more certainty; for though the fish at sight of its enemy instantly descends, yet the heron, with his long bill and legs, instantly pins it to the bottom, and thus seizes it securely. In this manner, after having been seen with his long neck for above a minute under water, he rises upon the wing, with a trout or an eel struggling in his bill to get free. The greedy bird, however, flies to the shore, scarcely gives it time to expire, but swallows it whole, and then returns to fishing as before.

As this bird does incredible mischief to ponds newly stocked, Willoughby has given a receipt for taking him.—“Having found his haunt, get three or four small roach or dace, and having provided a strong hook with a wire to it, this is drawn just within-side the skin of the fish,

beginning without-side the gills, and running it to the tail, by which the fish will not be killed, but continue for five or six days alive. Then having a strong line made of silk and wire, about two yards and a half long, it is tied to a stone at one end, the fish with the hook being suffered to swim about at the other. This being properly disposed in shallow water, the heron will seize upon the fish to its own destruction. From this method we may learn, that the fish must be alive, otherwise the heron will not touch them, and that this bird, as well as all those that feed upon fish, must be its own caterer; for they will not prey upon such as die naturally, or are killed by others before them."

Though this bird lives chiefly among pools and marshes, yet its nest is built on the tops of the highest trees, and sometimes on cliffs hanging over the sea. They are never in flocks when they fish, committing their depredations in solitude and silence; but in making their nests they love each other's society; and they are seen, like rooks, building in company with flocks of their kind. Their nests are made of sticks, and lined with wool; and the female lays four large eggs of a pale green colour. The observable indolence of their nature, however, is not less seen in their nestling than in their habits of depredation. Nothing is more certain, and I have seen it a hundred times, than that they will not be at the trouble of building a nest, when they can get one made by the rook, or deserted by the owl, already provided for them. This they usually enlarge and line within, driving off the original possessors, should they happen to renew their fruitless claims.

The French seem to have availed themselves of the indolence of this bird in making its nest; and they actually provide a place with materials fitted for their nestling, which they call *heronries*. The heron, which with us is totally unfit for the table, is more sought for in France, where the flesh of the young ones is in particular estimation. To obtain this, the natives raise up high sheds along some fishy stream; and furnishing them with materials for the herons to nestle with, these birds build and breed there in great abundance. As soon as the young ones are supposed to be fit, the owner of the heronry comes, as we do into a pigeon-house, and carries off such as are proper

for eating; and these are sold for a very good price to the neighbouring gentry. "These are a delicacy which" as my author says, "the French are very fond of, but which strangers have not yet been taught to relish as they ought." Nevertheless, it was formerly much esteemed as food in England, and made a favourite dish at great tables. It was then said that the flesh of a heron was a dish for a king; at present nothing about the house will touch it but a cat.

With us, therefore, as the heron, both old and young, is thought detestable eating, we seldom trouble these animals in their heights, which are for the most part sufficiently inaccessible. Their nests are often found in great numbers in the middle of large forests, and in some groves nearer home, where the owners have a predilection for the bird, and do not choose to drive it from its accustomed habitations. It is certain that by their cries, their expansive wings, their bulk, and wavy motion, they add no small solemnity to the forest, and give a pleasing variety to a finished improvement.

When the young are excluded, as they are numerous, voracious, and importunate, the old ones are for ever upon the wing to provide them with abundance. The quantity of fish they take upon this occasion is amazing, and their size is not less to be wondered at. I remember a heron's nest that was built near a school-house; the boys, with their usual appetite for mischief, climbed up, took down the young ones, sewed up their vents, and laid them in the nest as before. The pain the poor little animals felt from the operation increased their cries; and this but served to increase the diligence of the old ones in enlarging their supply. Thus they heaped the nest with various sorts of fish, and the best of their kind; and as their young screamed, they flew off for more. The boys gathered up the fish, which the young ones were incapable of eating, till the old ones at last quitted their nest; and gave up their brood, whose appetites they found it impossible to satisfy.

The heron is said to be a very long-lived bird; by Mr. Keysler's account, it may exceed sixty years; and by a recent instance of one that was taken in Holland, by a hawk belonging to the Stadtholder, its longevity is again

confirmed, the bird having a silver plate fastened to one leg, with an inscription, importing that it had been struck by the elector of Cologne's hawks thirty-five years before.

CHAP. VI.

OF THE BITTERN, OR MIRE-DRUM.

THOSE who have walked in an evening by the sedgy sides of unfrequented rivers, must remember a variety of notes from different water-fowl : the loud scream of the wild-goose; the croaking of the mallard, the whining of the lapwing, and the tremulous neighing of the jack-snipe. But of all those sounds, there is none so dismally hollow as the booming of the bittern. It is impossible for words to give those who have not heard this evening-call an adequate idea of its solemnity. It is like the interrupted bellowing of a bull, but hollower, and louder, and is heard at a mile's distance, as if issuing from some formidable being that resided at the bottom of the waters.

The bird, however, that produces this terrifying sound, is not so big as a heron, with a weaker bill, not above four inches long. It differs from the heron chiefly in its colour, which is in general of a paleish yellow, spotted and barred with black. Its wind-pipe is fitted to produce the sound for which it is remarkable ; the lower part of it dividing into the lungs, is supplied with a thin loose membrane, that can be filled with a large body of air, and exploded at pleasure. These bellowing explosions are chiefly heard from the beginning of spring to the end of autumn ; and, however awful they may seem to us, are the calls to courtship, or of conjugal felicity.

From the loudness and solemnity of the note, many have been led to suppose, that the bird made use of external instruments to produce it, and that so small a body could never eject such a quantity of tone. The common people are of opinion, that it thrusts its bill into a reed, that serves as a pipe for swelling the note above its natural pitch ; while others, and in this number we find Thomson the poet, imagine that the bittern puts its head under water, and then violently blowing produces its boomings. The

fact is, that the bird is sufficiently provided by nature for this call; and it is often heard where there are neither reeds nor waters to assist its sonorous invitations.

It hides in the sedges by day, and begins its call in the evening, booming six or eight times, and then discontinuing for ten or twenty minutes, to renew the same sound. This is a call it never gives but when undisturbed, and at liberty. When its retreats among the sedges are invaded, when it dreads or expects the approach of an enemy, it is then perfectly silent. This call it has never been heard to utter when taken or brought up in domestic captivity; it continues under the control of man a mute forlorn bird, equally incapable of attachment or instruction. But though its boomings are always performed in solitude, it has a scream which is generally heard upon the seizing its prey, and which is sometimes extorted by fear.

This bird, though of the heron kind, is yet neither so destructive nor so voracious. It is a retired timorous animal, concealing itself in the midst of reeds and marshy places, and living upon frogs, insects, and vegetables; and though so nearly resembling the heron in figure, yet differing much in manners and appetites. As the heron builds on the tops of the highest trees, the bittern lays its nest in a sedgy margin, or amidst a tuft of rushes. The heron builds with sticks and wool; the bittern composes its simpler habitation of sedges, the leaves of water-plants, and dry rushes. The heron lays four eggs; the bittern generally seven or eight, of an ash-green colour. The heron feeds its young for many days; the bittern in three days leads its little ones to their food. In short, the heron is lean and cadaverous, subsisting chiefly upon animal food; the bittern is plump and fleshy, as it feeds upon vegetables, when more nourishing food is wanting.

It cannot be, therefore, from its voracious appetites, but its hollow boom, that the bittern is held in such detestation by the vulgar. I remember, in the place where I was a boy, with what terror this bird's note affected the whole village; they considered it as the presage of some sad event; and generally found or made one to succeed it. I do not speak ludicrously; but if any person in the neighbourhood died, they supposed it could not be otherwise, for the night-raven

had foretold it ; but if no body happened to die, the death of a cow or a sheep gave completion to the prophecy.

Whatever terror it may inspire among the simple, its flesh is greatly esteemed among the luxurious. For this reason, it is as eagerly sought after by the fowler, as it is shunned by the peasant ; and, as it is a heavy-rising slow-winged bird, it does not often escape him. Indeed, it seldom rises but when almost trod upon, and seems to seek protection rather from concealment than flight. At the latter end of autumn, however, in the evening, its wonted indolence appears to forsake it. It is then seen rising in a spiral ascent, till it is quite lost from the view, making at the same time a singular noise, very different from its former boomings. Thus the same animal is often seen to assume different desires ; and while the Latins have given the bittern the name of the star-reaching bird, (or the *stellaris*,) the Greeks, taking its character from its more constant habits, have given it the title of the *ορνις*, or the lazy bird.

CHAP. VII.

OF THE SPOONBILL, OR SHOVELER.

As we proceed in our description of the crane kind, birds of peculiar forms offer, not entirely like the crane, and yet not so far different as to rank more properly with any other class. Where the long neck and stilt-like legs of the crane are found, they make too striking a resemblance not to admit such birds of the number ; and though the bill, or even the toes, should entirely differ, yet the outlines of the figure, and the natural habits and dispositions, being the same, these are sufficient to mark their place in the general group of nature.

The Spoonbill is one of those birds which differs a good deal from the crane, yet approaches this class more than any other. The body is more bulky for its height, and the bill is very differently formed from that of any other bird whatever. Yet still it is a comparatively tall bird ; it feeds among waters ; its toes are divided ; and it seems to possess the natural dispositions of the crane. The European

spoonbill is of about the bulk of a crane; but as the one is above four feet high, the other is not more than three feet three inches. The common colour of those of Europe is a dirty white; but those of America are of a beautiful rose colour, or a delightful crimson. Beauty of plumage seems to be the prerogative of all the birds of that continent; and we here see the most splendid tints bestowed on a bird, whose figure is sufficient to destroy the effects of its colouring; for its bill is so oddly fashioned, and its eyes so stupidly staring, that its fine feathers only tend to add splendour to deformity. The bill, which in this bird is so very particular, is about seven inches long, and running out broad at the end, as its name justly serves to denote, it is there about an inch and a half wide. This strangely fashioned instrument in some is black; in others of a light gray; and in those of America, it is of a red colour, like the rest of the body. All round the upper chap there runs a kind of rim, with which it covers that beneath; and as for the rest, its cheeks and its throat are without feathers, and covered with a black skin.

A bird so oddly fashioned might be expected to possess some very peculiar appetites; but the spoonbill seems to lead a life entirely resembling all those of the crane kind; and Nature, when she made the bill of this bird so very broad, seems rather to have sported with its form, than to aim at any final cause for which to adapt it. In fact, it is but a poor philosophy to ascribe every capricious variety in nature to some salutary purpose: in such solutions we only impose upon each other, and often wilfully contradict our own belief. There must be imperfections in every being, as well as capacities of enjoyment. Between both, the animal leads a life of moderate felicity; in part making use of its many natural advantages, and in part necessarily conforming to the imperfections of its figure.

The shoveler chiefly feeds upon frogs, toads, and serpents; of which, particularly at the Cape of Good Hope, they destroy great numbers. The inhabitants of that country hold them in as much esteem as the ancient Egyptians did their bird ibis: the shoveler runs tamely about their houses; and they are content with its society, as a useful, though a homely, companion. They are never killed; and,

indeed, they are good for nothing when they are dead, for the flesh is unfit to be eaten.

This bird breeds, in Europe, in company with the heron, in high trees; and in a nest formed of the same materials. Willoughby tells us, that in a certain grove, at a village called Seven Huys, near Leyden, they build and breed yearly in great numbers. In this grove, also, the heron, the bittern, the cormorant, and the shag, have taken up their residence, and annually bring forth their young together. Here the crane kind seem to have formed their general rendezvous; and, as the inhabitants say, every sort of bird has its several quarter, where none but their own tribe are permitted to reside. Of this grove the peasants of the country make good profit. When the young ones are ripe, those that farm the grove, with a hook at the end of a long pole, catch hold of the bough on which the nest is built, and shake out the young ones; but sometimes the nest and all tumble down together.

The shoveler lays from three to five eggs, white, and powdered with a few sanguine or pale spots. We sometimes see, in the cabinets of the curious, the bills of American shovelers, twice as big and as long as those of the common kind among us; but these birds have not yet made their way into Europe.

CHAP. VIII.

THE FLAMINGO.

THE Flamingo has the justest right to be placed among cranes; and though it happens to be web-footed, like birds of the goose kind, yet its height, figure, and appetites, entirely remove it from that groveling class of animals. With a longer neck and legs than any other of the crane kind, it seeks its food by wading among waters, and only differs from all of this tribe in the manner of seizing its prey; for as the heron makes use of its claws, the flamingo uses only its bill, which is strong and thick for the purpose, the claws being useless, as they are feeble, and webbed like those of water-fowl.

The flamingo is the most remarkable of all the crane kind, the tallest, bulkiest, and the most beautiful. The

body, which is of a beautiful scarlet, is no bigger than that of a swan; but its legs and neck are of such an extraordinary length, that, when it stands erect, it is six feet six inches high. Its wings, extended, are five feet six inches from tip to tip; and it is four feet eight inches from tip to tail. The head is round and small, with a large bill, seven inches long, partly red, partly black, and crooked like a bow. The legs and thighs, which are not much thicker than a man's finger, are about two feet eight inches high; and its neck near three feet long. The feet are not furnished with sharp claws, as in others of the crane kind; but feeble, and united by membranes, as in those of the goose. Of what use these membranes are does not appear, as the bird is never seen swimming, its legs and thighs being sufficient for bearing it into those depths where it seeks for prey.

This extraordinary bird is now chiefly found in America; but it was once known on all the coasts of Europe. Its beauty, its size, and the peculiar delicacy of its flesh, have been such temptations to destroy or take it, that it has long since deserted the shores frequented by man, and taken refuge in countries that are as yet but thinly peopled. In those desert regions, the flamingos live in a state of society, and under a better polity than any other of the feathered creation.

When the Europeans first came to America, and coasted down along the African shores, they found the flamingos on several shores, on either continent, gentle, and no way distrustful of mankind.* They had long been used to security, in the extensive solitudes they had chosen; and knew no enemies but those they could very well evade or oppose. The Negroes and the native Americans were possessed but of few destructive arts for killing them at a distance; and when the bird perceived the arrow, it well knew how to avoid it. But it was otherwise when the Europeans first came among them: the sailors, not considering that the dread of fire-arms was totally unknown in that part of the world, gave the flamingo the character of a foolish bird, that suffered itself to be approached and shot at. When the fowler had killed one, the rest of the

* Albin's New History of Birds.

flock, far from attempting to fly, only regarded the fall of their companion in a kind of fixed astonishment; another and another shot was discharged; and thus the fowler often levelled the whole flock, before one of them began to think of escaping.

But at present it is very different in that part of the world; and the flamingo is not only one of the scarcest, but of the shyest birds in the world, and the most difficult of approach. They chiefly keep near the most deserted and inhospitable shores; near salt-water lakes and swampy islands. They come down to the banks of rivers by day; and often retire to the inland mountainous parts of the country at the approach of night. When seen by mariners in the day, they always appear drawn up in a long close line of two or three hundred together; and, as Dampier tells us, present, at the distance of half a mile, the exact representation of a long brick wall. Their rank, however, is broken when they seek for food; but they always appoint one of the number as a watch, whose only employment is to observe and give notice of danger, while the rest are feeding. As soon as this trusty centinel perceives the remotest appearance of danger, he gives a loud scream, with a voice as shrill as a trumpet, and instantly the whole cohort are upon the wing. They feed in silence; but, upon this occasion, all the flock are in one chorus, and fill the air with intolerable screamings.

From this it appears, that the flamingos are very difficult to be approached at present, and that they avoid mankind with the most cautious timidity; however, it is not from any antipathy to man that they shun his society, for in some villages, as we are assured by Labat, along the coasts of Africa, the flamingos come in great numbers to make their residence among the natives. There they assemble by thousands, perched on the trees, within and about the village; and are so very clamorous, that the sound is heard at near a mile's distance. The Negroes are fond of their company; and consider their society as a gift of Heaven, as a protection from accidental evils. The French, who are admitted to this part of the coast, cannot, without some degree of discontent, see such a quantity of game untouched, and rendered useless by the superstition of the natives: they now and then privately shoot some of them,

when at a convenient distance from the village, and hide them in the long grass, if they perceive any of the Negroes approaching; for they would probably stand a chance of being ill used, if the blacks discovered their sacred birds thus unmercifully treated.

Sometimes, in their wild state, they are shot by mariners; and their young, which run excessively fast, are often taken. Labat has frequently taken them with nets, properly extended round the places they breed in. When their long legs are entangled in the meshes, they are then unqualified to make their escape: but they still continue to combat with their destroyer; and the old ones, though seized by the head, will scratch with their claws; and these, though seemingly inoffensive, very often do mischief. When they are fairly disengaged from the net, they nevertheless preserve their natural ferocity; they refuse all nourishment; they peck, and combat with their claws, at every opportunity. The fowler is, therefore, under a necessity of destroying them, when taken; as they would only pine and die, if left to themselves in captivity.

The flesh of the old ones is black and hard; though, Dampier says, well-tasted: that of the young ones is still better. But of all other delicacies, the flamingo's tongue is the most celebrated. "A dish of flamingos' tongues," says our author, "is a feast for an emperor." In fact, the Roman emperors considered them as the highest luxury; and we have an account of one of them, who procured fifteen hundred flamingos' tongues to be served up in a single dish. The tongue of this bird, which is so much sought after, is a good deal larger than that of any other bird whatever. The bill of the flamingo is like a large black box, of an irregular figure, and filled with a tongue which is black and gristly; but what peculiar flavour it may possess, I leave to be determined by such as understand good eating better than I do. It is probable, that the beauty and scarcity of the bird might be the first inducements to studious gluttony to fix upon its tongue as meat for the table. What Dampier says of the goodness of its flesh, cannot so well be relied on; for Dampier was often hungry, and thought any thing good that could be eaten: he avers, indeed, with Labat, that the flesh is black, tough, and fishy; so that we can hardly give him credit, when he

asserts, that its flesh can be formed into a luxurious entertainment.

These birds as was said, always go in flocks together; and they move in rank, in the manner of cranes. They are sometimes seen, at the break of day, flying down in great numbers from the mountains, and conducting each other with a trumpet cry, that sounds like the word *Tococo*, from whence the savages of Canada have given them the name. In their flight they appear to great advantage; for they then seem of as bright a red as a burning coal. When they dispose themselves to feed, their cry ceases; and then they disperse over a whole marsh, in silence and assiduity. Their manner of feeding is very singular: the bird thrusts down its head, so that the upper convex side of the bill shall only touch the ground; and in this position the animal appears, as it were, standing upon its head. In this manner it paddles and moves the bill about, and seizes whatever fish or insect happens to offer. For this purpose the upper chap is notched at the edges, so as to hold its prey with the greater security. Catesby, however, gives a different account of their feeding. According to him, they thus place the upper chap undermost, and so work about, in order to pick up a seed from the bottom of the water, that resembles millet: but as in picking up this they necessarily also suck in a great quantity of mud, their bill is toothed at the edges in such a manner as to let out the mud while they swallow the grain.

Their time of breeding is according to the climate in which they reside: in North America they breed in our summer; on the other side of the line, they take the most favourable season of the year. They build their nests in extensive marshes, and where they are in no danger of a surprise. The nest is not less curious than the animal that builds it: it is raised from the surface of the pool about a foot and a half, formed of mud scraped up together, and hardened by the sun, or the heat of the bird's body; it resembles a truncated cone, or one of the pots which we see placed on chimnies; on the top it is hollowed out to the shape of the bird, and in that cavity the female lays her eggs; without any lining but the well-cemented mud that forms the sides of the building. She always lays two eggs, and no more; and, as her legs are immoderately long, she

straddles on the nest, while her legs hang down, one on each side, into the water.

The young ones are a long while before they are able to fly; but they run with amazing swiftness. They are sometimes caught; and, very different from the old ones, suffer themselves to be carried home, and are tamed very easily. In five or six days they become familiar, eat out of the hand, and drink a surprising quantity of sea-water. But though they are easily rendered domestic, they are not reared without the greatest difficulty: for they generally pine away, for want of their natural supplies, and die in a short time. While they are yet young, their colours are very different from those lively tints they acquire with age. In their first year they are covered with plumage of a white colour, mixed with gray: in the second year the whole body is white, with here and there a slight tint of scarlet; and the great covert feathers of the wings are black: the third year the bird acquires all its beauty; the plumage of the whole body is scarlet, except some of the feathers in the wings, that still retain their sable hue. Of these beautiful plumes the savages make various ornaments; and the bird is sometimes skinned by the Europeans, to make muffs. But these have diminished in their price, since we have obtained the art of dying feathers of the brightest scarlet.

CHAP. IX.

OF THE AVOSETTA, OR SCOOPER; AND THE CORRIRA, OR RUNNER.

THE extraordinary shape of the Avosetta's bill might incline us to wish for its history; and yet in that we are not able to indulge the reader. Natural historians have hitherto, like ambitious monarchs, shewn a greater fondness for extending their dominions, than cultivating what they possess. While they have been labouring to add new varieties to their catalogues, they have neglected to study the history of animals already known.

The avosetta is chiefly found in Italy, and now and then comes over into England. It is about the size of a pigeon,

is a pretty upright bird, and has extremely long legs for its size. But the most extraordinary part of its figure, and that by which it may be distinguished from all others of the feathered tribe, is the bill, which turns up like a hook, in an opposite direction to that of the hawk or the parrot. This extraordinary bill is black, flat, sharp, and flexible at the end, and about three inches and a half long. From its being bare a long way above the knee, it appears that it lives and wades in the waters. It has a chirping pert note, as we are told; but with its other habits we are entirely unacquainted. I have placed it, from its slender figure, among the cranes; although it is web-footed, like the duck. It is one of those birds of whose history we are yet in expectation.*

To this bird of the crane kind, so little known, I will add another, still less known; the *Corrira*, or *Runner*, of *Aldrovandus*. All we are told of it is, that it has the longest legs of all web-footed fowls, except the flamingo and avosetta; that the bill is straight, yellow, and black at the ends; that the pupils of the eyes are surrounded with two circles, one of which is bay, and the other white: below, near the belly, it is whitish; the tail, with two white feathers, black at the extremities: and that the upper part of the body is of the colour of rusty iron. It is thus that we are obliged to substitute dry description for instructive history; and employ words, to express those shadings of colour which the pencil alone can convey.

CHAP. X.

OF SMALL BIRDS OF THE CRANE KIND, WITH THE THIGHS PARTLY BARE OF FEATHERS

AS I have taken my distinctions rather from the general form and manners of birds, than from their minuter though perhaps more precise discriminations, it will not

* The *Avoset* breeds in the fens of Lincolnshire, and on Romney marsh in Kent. In winter they assemble in small flocks of six or seven, and frequent our shores, especially the mouths of large muddy rivers, in search of worms and marine insects. These they scoop out of the mud with their recurved bills, which are admirably adapted for that

be expected that I should here enter into a particular history of a numerous tribe of birds, whose manners and forms are so very much alike. Of many of them we have scarcely any account in our historians, but tedious descriptions of their dimensions, and the colour of their plumage; and of the rest, the history of one is so much that of all, that it is but the same account repeated to a most disgusting reiteration. I will therefore groupe them into one general draught; in which the more eminent, or the most whimsical, will naturally stand forward on the canvass.

In this group we find an extensive tribe of native birds, with their varieties and affinities; and we might add a hundred others, of distant climates, of which we know little more than the colour and the name. In this list is exhibited the Curlew, a bird of about the size of a duck, with a bill four inches long: the Woodcock, about the size of a pigeon, with a bill three inches long: the Godwit, of the same size; the bill four inches: the Green Shank, longer legged; the bill two inches and a half: the Red Shank, differing in the colour of its feet from the former: the Snipe, less by half, with a bill three inches. Then with shorter bills—The Ruff, with a collar of feathers round the neck of the male: the Knot, the Sandpiper, the Sanderling, the Dunlin, the Purre, and the Stint. To conclude: with bills very short—The Lapwing, the Green Plover, the Gray Plover, the Dottrel, the Turnstone, and the Sea-lark. These, with their affinities, are properly natives or visitants of this country; and are dispersed along our shores, rivers, and watery grounds. Taking in the birds of this kind, belonging to other countries, the list would be very widely extended; and the whole of this class, as described by Brisson, would amount to near a hundred.

All these birds possess many marks in common; though some have peculiarities that deserve regard. All these birds

purpose, being tough and flexible like whalebone. The feet seem calculated for swimming, but they are never observed to take the water: it is therefore probable, that they are furnished with a web merely to prevent their sinking into the mud. The female lays two eggs about the size of those of a pigeon, of a white colour tinged with green, and marked with large black spots. It is said to be very tenacious of its young, and when disturbed at this season, will fly round in repeated circles, uttering a note that resembles the word *twit* twice repeated.

are bare of feathers above the knee, or above the heel, as some naturalists choose to express it. In fact, that part which I call the knee, if compared with the legs of mankind, is analogous to the heel; but as it is commonly conceived otherwise, I have conformed to the general apprehension. I say, therefore, that all these birds are bare of feathers above the knee; and in some they are wanting half way up the thigh. The nudity in that part, is partly natural, and partly produced by all birds of this kind habitually wading in water. The older the bird, the barer are its thighs; yet even the young ones have not the same downy covering reaching so low as the birds of any other class. Such a covering there would rather be prejudicial, as being continually liable to get wet in the water.

As these birds are usually employed rather in running than in flying, and as their food lies entirely upon the ground; and not on trees or in the air, so they run with great swiftness for their size, and the length of their legs assists their velocity. But, as in seeking their food, they are often obliged to change their station; so also are they equally swift of wing, and traverse immense tracts of country without much fatigue.

It has been thought by some, that a part of this class lived upon an oily slime, found in the bottoms of ditches and of weedy pools; they were thence termed, by Willoughby, *Mudsuckers*. But later discoveries have shewn that, in these places, they hunt for the caterpillars and worms of insects. From hence, therefore, we may generally assert, that all birds of this class live upon animals of one kind or another. The long-billed birds suck up worms and insects from the bottom; those furnished with shorter bills, pick up such insects as lie nearer the surface of the meadow, or among the sands on the sea-shore.

Thus the curlew, the woodcock, and the snipe, are ever seen in plashy brakes, and under covered hedges, assiduously employed in seeking out insects in their worm state; and it seems, from their fatness, that they find a plentiful supply. Nature, indeed, has furnished them with very convenient instruments for procuring their food. Their bills are made sufficiently long for searching; but still more, they are endowed with an exquisite sensibility at the point, for feeling their provision. They are

furnished with no less than three pair of nerves, equal almost to the optic nerves in thickness; which pass from the roof of the mouth, and run along the upper chap to the point.

Nor are those birds with shorter bills, and destitute of such convenient instruments, without a proper provision made for their subsistence. The lapwing, the sandpiper, and the redshank, run with surprising rapidity along the surface of the marsh or the sea-shore, quarter their ground with great dexterity, and leave nothing of the insect kind that happens to lie on the surface. These, however, are neither so fat nor so delicate as the former; as they are obliged to toil more for a subsistence, they are easily satisfied with whatever offers; and their flesh often contracts a relish for what has been their latest, or their principal food.

Most of the birds formerly described, have stated seasons for feeding and rest: the eagle kind prowl by day, and at evening repose; the owl by night, and keeps unseen in the day-time: but these birds, of the crane kind, seem at all hours employed; they are seldom at rest by day; and, during the whole night-season, every meadow and marsh resounds with their different calls, to courtship or to food.

This seems to be the time when they least fear interruption from man; and though they fly at all times, yet at this season, they appear more assiduously employed, both in providing for their present support, and continuing that of posterity. This is usually the season when the insidious fowler steals in upon their occupations, and fills the whole meadow with terror and destruction.

As all of this kind live entirely in waters, and among watery places, they seem provided by nature with a warmth of constitution to fit them for that cold element. They reside, by choice, in the coldest climates: and as other birds migrate here in our summer, their migrations hither are mostly in the winter. Even those that reside among us the whole season, retire in summer to the tops of our bleakest mountains; where they breed, and bring down their young, when the cold weather sets in.

Most of them, however, migrate, and retire to the polar regions; as those that remain behind in the moun-

tains, and keep with us during summer, bear no proportion to the quantity which in winter haunt our marshes and low grounds. The snipe sometimes builds here; and the nest of the curlew is sometimes found in the splashes of our hills; but the number of these is very small; and it is most probable that they are only some stragglers who, not having strength or courage sufficient for the general voyage, take up from necessity their habitation here.

In general, during the summer, this whole class either choose the coldest countries to retire to, or the coldest and the moistest part of ours to breed in. The curlew, the woodcock, the snipe, the godwit the gray plover, the green and the long-legged plover, the knot, and the turnstone, are rather the guests than the natives of this island. They visit us in the beginning of winter, and forsake us in the spring. They then retire to the mountains of Sweden, Poland, Prussia, and Lapland, to breed. Our country, during the summer season, becomes uninhabitable to them. The ground parched up by the heat; the springs dried away; and the vermicular insects already upon the wing; they have no means of subsisting. Their weak and delicately pointed bills are unfit to dig into a resisting soil; and their prey is departed, though they were able to reach its retreats. Thus, that season when nature is said to teem with life, and to put on her gayest liveries, is to them an interval of sterility and famine. The coldest mountains of the north are then a preferable habitation; the marshes there are never totally dried up; and the insects are in such abundance, that, both above ground and underneath, the country swarms with them. In such retreats, therefore, these birds would continue always; but that the frosts, when they set in, have the same effect upon the face of the landscape, as the heats of summer. Every brook is stiffened into ice; all the earth is congealed into one solid mass; and the birds are obliged to forsake a region where they can no longer find subsistence.

Such are our visitants. With regard to those which keep with us continually, and breed here, they are neither so delicate in their food, nor perhaps so warm in their constitutions. The lapwing, the ruff, the redshank,

the sandpiper, the sea-pie, the Norfolk plover, and the sea-lark, breed in this country, and for the most part, reside here. In summer they frequent such marshes as are not dried up in any part of the year; the Essex hundreds, and the fens of Lincolnshire. There, in solitudes formed by surrounding marshes, they breed and bring up their young. In winter they come down from their retreats rendered uninhabitable by the flooding of the waters, and seek their food about our ditches and marshy meadow-grounds. Yet, even of this class, all are wanderers upon some occasions; and take wing to the northern climates, to breed and find subsistence. This happens when our summers are peculiarly dry; and when the fenny countries are not sufficiently watered to defend their retreats.

But though this be the usual course of nature, with respect to these birds, they often break through the general habits of their kind; and as the lapwing, the ruff, and the sandpiper, are sometimes seen to alter their manners, and to migrate from hence, instead of continuing to breed here; so we often find the woodcock, the snipe, and the curlew, reside with us during the whole season, and breed their young in different parts of the country. In Casewood, about two miles from Tunbridge, as Mr. Pen-
nant assures us, some woodcocks are seen to breed annually. The young have been shot there in the beginning of August; and were as healthy and vigorous as they are with us in winter, though not so well tasted. On the Alps, and other high mountains, says Willoughby, the woodcock continues all summer; I myself have flushed them on the top of Mount Jura, in June and July. The eggs are long, of a pale red colour, and stained with deeper spots and clouds. The nests of the curlew and the snipe are frequently found; and some of these perhaps never entirely leave this island.

It is thus that the same habits are, in some measure, common to all; but in nestling, and bringing up their young, one method takes place universally. As they all run and feed upon the ground, so they are all found to nestle there. The number of eggs generally to be seen in every nest, is from two to four; never under, and very seldom exceeding. The nest is made without any art;

but the eggs are either laid in some little depression of the earth, or on a few bents and long grass, that scarcely preserve them from the moisture below. Yet such is the heat of the body of these birds, that the time of incubation is shorter than with any other of the same size. The magpie, for instance, takes twenty-one days to hatch its young; the lapwing takes but fourteen. Whether the animal oil, with which these birds abound, gives them this superior warmth, I cannot tell; but there is no doubt of their quick incubation.

In their seasons of courtship, they pair as other birds; but not without violent contests between the males, for the choice of the female. The lapwing and the plover are often seen to fight among themselves; but there is one little bird of this tribe, called the *ruff*, that has got the epithet of the *fighter*, merely from its great perseverance and animosity on these occasions. In the beginning of spring, when these birds arrive among our marshes, they are observed to engage with desperate fury against each other: it is then that the fowlers, seeing them intent on mutual destruction, spread their nets over them, and take them in great numbers. Yet even in captivity their animosity still continues: the people that fat them up for sale, are obliged to shut them up in close dark rooms; for if they let ever so little light in among them, the turbulent prisoners instantly fall to fighting with each other, and never cease till each has killed its antagonist, especially, says Willoughby, if any body stands by. A similar animosity, though in a less degree, prompts all this tribe; but when they have paired, and begun to lay, their contentions are then over.

The place these birds chiefly choose to breed in, is in some island surrounded with sedgy moors, where men seldom resort; and in such situations I have often seen the ground so strewn with eggs and nests, that one could scarcely take a step, without treading upon some of them. As soon as a stranger intrudes upon these retreats, the whole colony is up, and a hundred different screams are heard from every quarter. The arts of the lapwing, to allure men or dogs from her nest, are perfectly amusing. When she perceives the enemy approaching, she never waits till they arrive at her nest, but boldly runs to meet

them: when she has come as near them as she dares to venture, she then rises with a loud screaming before them, seeming as if she were just flushed from hatching; while she is then probably a hundred yards from the nest. Thus she flies with great clamour and anxiety, whining and screaming around the invaders, striking at them with her wings, and fluttering as if she were wounded. To add to the deceit, she appears still more clamorous, as more remote from the nest. If she sees them very near, she then seems to be quite unconcerned, and her cries cease, while her terrors are really augmenting. If there be dogs, she flies heavily at a little distance before them, as if maimed; still vociferous and still bold, but never offering to move towards the quarter where her treasure is deposited. The dog pursues, in hopes every moment of seizing the parent, and by this means actually loses the young; for the cunning bird, when she has thus drawn him off to a proper distance, then puts forth her powers, and leaves her astonished pursuers to gaze at the rapidity of her flight. The eggs of all these birds are highly valued by the luxurious; they are boiled hard, and thus served up without any further preparation.

As the young of this class are soon hatched, so, when excluded, they quickly arrive at maturity. They run about after the mother as soon as they leave the egg; and being covered with a thick down, want very little of that clutching which all birds of the poultry kind, that follow the mother, indispensably require. They come to their adult state long before winter; and then flock together till the breeding season returns, which for a while dissolves their society.

As the flesh of almost all these birds is in high estimation, so many methods have been contrived for taking them. That used in taking the ruff, seems to be most advantageous; and it may not be amiss to describe it. The Ruff, which is the name of the male, the Reeve that of the female, is taken in nets about forty yards long, and seven or eight feet high. These birds are chiefly found in Lincolnshire and the Isle of Ely, where they come about the latter end of April, and disappear about Michaelmas. The male of this bird, which is known from all others of the kind by the great length of the feathers

round his neck, is yet so various in his plumage, that it is said, no two ruffs were ever seen totally of the same colour. The nets in which these are taken, are supported by sticks, at an angle of near forty-five degrees, and placed either on dry ground, or in a very shallow water, not remote from reeds: among these the fowler conceals himself, till the birds, enticed by a stale or stuffed bird, come under the nets; he then, by pulling a string, lets them fall, and they are taken; as are god-wits, knots, and gray-plover also, in the same manner. When these birds are brought from under the net, they are not killed immediately, but fattened for the table with bread and milk, hemp-seed, and sometimes boiled wheat; but if expedition be wanted, sugar is added, which will make them a lump of fat in a fortnight's time. They are kept, as observed before, in a dark room; and judgment is required in taking the proper time for killing them, when they are at the highest pitch of fatness: for if that is neglected, the birds are apt to fall away. They are reckoned a very great delicacy; they sell for two shillings, or half-a-crown, a piece; and are served up to the table with the train, like woodcocks, where we will leave them.

CHAP. XI.

OF THE WATER-HEN, AND THE COOT.

BEFORE we enter upon water-fowls, properly so called, two or three birds claim our attention, which seem to form the shade between the web-footed tribe and those of the crane kind. These partake rather of the form than the habits of the crane; and, though furnished with long legs and necks, rather swim than wade. They cannot properly be called web-footed; nor yet are they entirely destitute of membranes, which fringe their toes on each side, and adapt them for swimming. The birds in question are, the Water-Hen and the Bald-Coot.

These birds have too near an affinity, not to be ranked in the same description. They are shaped entirely alike, their legs are long, and their thighs partly bare; their necks are proportionable. their wings short, their bills

short and weak, their colour black, their foreheads bald and without feathers, and their habits entirely the same. These, however, naturalists have thought proper to range in different classes, from very slight distinctions in their figure. The water-hen weighs but fifteen ounces; the coot twenty-four. The bald part of the forehead in the coot is black; in the water-hen it is of a beautiful pink colour. The toes of the water-hen are edged with a straight membrane; those of the coot have it scoloped and broader.

The differences in the figure are but slight; and those in their manner of living still less. The history of the one will serve for both. As birds of the crane kind are furnished with long wings, and easily change place, the water-hen, whose wings are short, is obliged to reside entirely near those places where her food lies: she cannot take those long journies that most of the crane kind are seen to perform; compelled by her natural imperfections, as well perhaps as by inclination, she never leaves the side of the pond or the river in which she seeks for provision. Where the stream is selvaged with sedges, or the pond edged with shrubby trees, the water-hen is generally a resident there: she seeks her food along the grassy banks, and often along the surface of the water. With Shakespear's Edgar, she drinks the green mantle of the standing pool; or, at least seems to prefer those places where it is seen. Whether she makes pond-weed her food, or hunts among it for water-insects, which are found there in great abundance, is not certain. I have seen them when pond-weed was taken out of their stomach. She builds her nest upon low trees and shrubs, of sticks and fibres, by the water-side. Her eggs are sharp at one end, white, with a tincture of green, spotted with red. She lays twice or thrice in a summer; her young ones swim the moment they leave the egg, pursue their parent, and imitate all her manners. She rears, in this manner, two or three broods in a season: and when the young are grown up, she drives them off to shift for themselves.

As the coot is a larger bird, it is always seen in larger streams, and more remote from mankind. The water-hen seems to prefer inhabited situations: she keeps near ponds, moats, and pools of water near gentlemen's houses; but the coot keeps in rivers, and among rushy margined lakes. It there makes a nest of such weeds as the stream supplies, and

lays them among the reeds, floating on the surface, and rising and falling with the water. The reeds among which it is built keep it fast; so that it is seldom washed into the middle of the stream. But if this happens, which is sometimes the case, the bird sits in her nest, like a mariner in his boat, and steers with her legs her cargo into the nearest harbour: there, having attained her port, she continues to sit in great tranquillity, regardless of the impetuosity of the current; and though the water penetrates her nest, she hatches her eggs in that wet condition.

The water-hen never wanders; but the coot sometimes swims down the current, till it even reaches the sea. In this voyage these birds encounter a thousand dangers: as they cannot fly far, they are hunted by dogs and men; as they never leave the stream, they are attacked and destroyed by otters; they are preyed upon by kites and falcons; and they are taken in still greater numbers in weirs made for catching fish; for these birds are led into the nets, while pursuing small fish and insects, which are their principal food. Thus animated nature affords a picture of universal invasion! Man destroys the otter, the otter destroys the coot, the coot feeds upon fish, and fish are universally the tyrants of each other!

To these birds, with long legs and finny toes, I will add one species more, with short legs and finny toes; I mean the Grebe. The entire resemblance of this bird's appetites and manners to those of the web-footed class, might justly induce me to rank it among them; but as it resembles those above described, in the peculiar form of its toes, and bears some similitude in its manners also, I will for once sacrifice method to brevity. The grebe is much larger than either of the former, and its plumage white and black; it differs also entirely in the shortness of its legs, which are made for swimming, and not walking: in fact, they are from the knee upward hid in the belly of the bird, and have consequently very little motion. By this mark, and by the scolloped fringe of the toes, may this bird be easily distinguished from all others.

As they are thus, from the shortness of their wings, ill formed for flying, and from the uncommon shortness of their legs utterly unfitted for walking, they seldom leave the water, and chiefly frequent those broad shallow pools where

their faculty of swimming can be turned to the greatest advantage, in fishing and seeking their prey.

They are chiefly, in this country, seen to frequent the meres of Shropshire and Cheshire; where they breed among reeds and flags, in a floating nest, kept steady by the weeds of the margin. The female is said to be a careful nurse of her young, being observed to feed them most assiduously with small eels; and when the little brood is tired, the mother will carry them either on her back or under her wings. This bird preys upon fish, and is almost perpetually diving. It does not shew much more than the head above water; and is very difficult to be shot, as it darts down on the appearance of the least danger. It is never seen on land; and, though disturbed ever so often, will not leave that lake, where alone, by diving and swimming, it can find food and security. It is chiefly sought for the skin of its breast, the plumage of which is of a most beautiful silvery white, and as glossy as satin. This part is made into tippets; but the skins are out of season about February, losing their bright colour; and in breeding-time their breasts are entirely bare.

BOOK VII.

OF WATER-FOWL.

CHAP. I.

OF WATER-FOWL IN GENERAL.

IN settling the distinctions among the other classes of birds, there was some difficulty; one tribe encroached so nearly upon the nature and habitudes of another, that it was not easy to draw the line which kept them asunder: but in water-fowl, nature has marked them for us by a variety of indelible characters; so that it would be almost as unlikely to mistake a land-fowl for one adapted for living and swimming among the waters, as a fish for a bird.

The first great distinction in this class appears in the toes, which are webbed together for swimming. Those who have remarked the feet or toes of a duck, will easily conceive how admirably they are formed for making way in the water. When men swim, they do not open the fingers, so as to let the fluid pass through them; but closing them together, present one broad surface to beat back the water, and thus push their bodies along. What man performs by art, nature has supplied to water-fowl; and, by broad skins, has webbed their toes together, so that they expand two broad oars to the water; and thus, moving them alternately, with the greatest ease paddle along. We must observe also, that the toes are so contrived, that as they strike backward, their broadest hollow surface beats the water; but as they gather them in again, for a second blow, their front surface contracts, and does not impede the bird's progressive motion.

As their toes are webbed in the most convenient manner, so are their legs also made most fitly for swift progression in the water. The legs of all are short, except the three birds described in a former chapter; namely, the

flamingo, the avosetta, and the corriira: all which, for that reason, I have thought proper to rank among the crane kind, as they make little use of their toes in swimming. Except these, all web-footed birds have very short legs; and these strike, while they swim, with great facility.—Were the leg long, it would act like a lever whose prop is placed to a disadvantage; its motions would be slow, and the labour of moving it considerable. For this reason, the very few birds whose webbed feet are long, never make use of them in swimming: the web at the bottom seems only of service as a broad base, to prevent them from sinking while they walk in the mud; but it otherwise rather retards than advances their motion.

The shortness of their legs in the web-footed kinds, renders them as unfit for walking on land, as it qualifies them for swimming in their natural element. Their stay, therefore, upon land, is but short and transitory; and they seldom venture to breed far from the sides of those waters where they usually remain. In their breeding seasons, their young are brought up by the water-side; and they are covered with a warm down, to fit them for the coldness of their situation. The old ones, also, have a closer, warmer plumage, than birds of any other class. It is of their feathers that our beds are composed; as they neither mat, nor imbibe humidity, but are furnished with an animal-oil that glazes their surface, and keeps each separate. In some, however, this animal-oil is in too great abundance, and is as offensive from its smell, as it is serviceable for the purposes of household economy. The feathers, therefore, of all the penguin kind are totally useless for domestic purposes; as neither boiling nor bleaching can divest them of their oily rancidity. Indeed, the rancidity of all new feathers, of whatever water-fowl they be, is so disgusting, that our upholsterers give near double the price for old feathers that they afford for new: to be free from smell, they must all be lain upon for some time; and their usual method is to mix the new and the old together.

This quantity of oil, with which most water-fowl are supplied, contributes also to their warmth in the moist element where they reside. Their skin is generally lined with fat; so that, with the warmth of the feathers externally, and this

natural lining more internally, they are better defended against the changes or the inclemencies of the weather, than any other class whatever.

As, among land-birds, there are some found fitted entirely for depredation, and others for an harmless method of subsisting upon vegetables, so also, among these birds, there are tribes of plunderers that prey, not only upon fish, but sometimes upon water-fowl themselves. There are likewise more inoffensive tribes, that live upon insects and vegetables only. Some water-fowls subsist by making sudden stoops from above, to seize whatever fish come near the surface; others again, not furnished with wings long enough to fit them for flight, take their prey by diving after it to the bottom.

From hence all water-fowl naturally fall into three distinctions. Those of the Gull kind, that, with long legs and round bills, fly along the surface to seize their prey: those of the Penguin kind, that, with round bills, legs hid in the abdomen, and short wings, dive after their prey: and, thirdly, those of the Goose kind, with flat broad bills, that lead harmless lives, and chiefly subsist upon insects and vegetables.

These are not speculative distinctions, made up for the arrangement of a system; but they are strongly and evidently marked by nature. The gull kind are active and rapacious; constantly, except when they breed, keeping upon the wing; fitted for a life of rapine, with sharp straight bills for piercing, or hooked at the end for holding their fishy prey. In this class we may rank the Albatross, the Cormorant, the Gannet or Soland Goose, the Shag, the Frigate-bird, the Great Brown Gull, and all the lesser tribe of gulls and sea-swallows.

The Penguin kind, with appetites as voracious, bills as sharp, and equally eager for prey, are yet unqualified to obtain it by flight. Their wings are short, and their bodies large and heavy, so that they can neither run nor fly. But they are formed for diving in a very peculiar manner. Their feet are placed so far backward, and their legs so hid in the abdomen, that the slightest stroke sends them head foremost to the bottom of the water. To this class we may refer the Penguin, the Auk, the Skout, the Sea-turtle, the Bottlenose, and the Loon.

The Goose kind are easily distinguishable, by their flat broad bills covered with a skin, and their manner of feeding, which is mostly upon vegetables. In this class we may place the Swan, the Goose, the Duck, the Teal, the Widgeon, and all their numerous varieties.

In describing the birds of these three classes, I will put the most remarkable of each class at the beginning of their respective tribes, and give their separate history; then, after having described the chiefs of the tribe, the more ordinary sorts will naturally fall in a body, and come under a general description, behind their leaders. But before I offer to pursue this methodical arrangement, I must give the history of a bird, that from the singularity of its conformation, seems allied to no species; and should, therefore, be separately described—I mean the Pelican.

CHAP. II.

OF THE PELICAN.

THE Pelican of Africa is much larger in the body than a swan, and somewhat of the same shape and colour. Its four toes are all webbed together; and its neck, in some measure, resembles that of a swan: but that singularity in which it differs from all other birds, is in the bill and the great pouch underneath, which are wonderful, and demand a distinct description. This enormous bill is fifteen inches from the point to the opening of the mouth, which is a good way back behind the eyes. At the base, the bill is somewhat greenish, but varies towards the end, being of a reddish-blue. It is very thick in the beginning, but tapers off to the end, where it hooks downwards. The upper chap is still more extraordinary; for to the lower edges of it hangs a bag, reaching the whole length of the bill to the neck, which is said to be capable of containing fifteen quarts of water. This bag the bird has a power of wrinkling up into the hollow of the under-chap; but by opening the bill, and putting one's hand down into the bag, it may be distended at pleasure. The skin of which it is formed will then be seen of a bluish ash-colour, with many fibres and veins

running over its surface. It is not covered with feathers, but a short downy substance, as smooth and as soft as satin, and is attached all along the under edges of the chap, to be fixed backward to the neck of the bird by proper ligaments, and reaches near half way down. When this bag is empty it is not seen; but when the bird has fished with success, it is then incredible to what an extent it is often seen dilated. For the first thing the pelican does in fishing is to fill up the bag; and then it returns to digest its burden at leisure. When the bill is open to its widest extent, a person may run his head into the bird's mouth, and conceal it in this monstrous pouch, thus adapted for very singular purposes. Yet this is nothing to what Ruysch assures us, who avers, that a man has been seen to hide his whole leg, boot and all, in the monstrous jaws of one of these animals. At first appearance this would seem impossible, as the sides of the under chap, from which the bag depends, are not above an inch asunder when the bird's bill is first opened; but then they are capable of great separation; and it must necessarily be so, as the bird preys upon the largest fishes, and hides them by dozens in its pouch. Tertre affirms, that it will hide as many fish as will serve sixty hungry men for a meal.

Such is the formation of this extraordinary bird, which is a native of Africa and America. The pelican was once also known in Europe, particularly in Russia; but it seems to have deserted our coasts. This is the bird of which so many fabulous accounts have been propagated; such as its feeding its young with its own blood, and its carrying a provision of water for them in its great reservoir in the desert. But the absurdity of the first account answers itself; and as for the latter, the pelican uses its bag for very different purposes than that of filling it with water.

Its amazing pouch may be considered as analogous to the crop in other birds, with this difference, that as theirs lies at the bottom of the gullet, so this is placed at the top.—Thus, as pigeons and other birds macerate their food for their young in their crops, and then supply them, so the pelican supplies its young by a more ready contrivance, and macerates their food in its bill, or stores it for its own particular sustenance.

The ancients were particularly fond of giving this bird admirable qualities and parental affections; struck, perhaps, with its extraordinary figure, they were willing to supply it with as extraordinary appetites; and having found it with a large reservoir, they were pleased with turning it to the most tender and parental uses. But the truth is, the pelican is a very heavy, sluggish, voracious bird, and very ill fitted to take those flights, or to make those cautious provisions for a distant time, which we have been told they do. Father Labat, who seems to have studied their manners with great exactness, has given us a minute history of this bird, as found in America; and from him I will borrow mine.

The pelican, says Labat, has strong wings, furnished with thick plumage of an ash-colour, as are the rest of the feathers over the whole body. Its eyes are very small when compared to the size of its head; there is a sadness in its countenance, and its whole air is melancholy. It is as dull and reluctant in its motions, as the flamingo is sprightly and active. It is slow of flight; and when it rises to fly, performs it with difficulty and labour. Nothing, as it would seem, but the spur of necessity could make these birds change their situation, or induce them to ascend into the air; but they must either starve or fly.

They are torpid and inactive to the last degree, so that nothing can exceed their indolence but their gluttony; it is only from the stimulations of hunger that they are excited to labour; for otherwise they would continue always in fixed repose. When they have raised themselves about thirty or forty feet above the surface of the sea, they turn their head with one eye downwards, and continue to fly in that posture. As soon as they perceive a fish sufficiently near the surface, they dart down upon it with the swiftness of an arrow, seize it with unerring certainty, and store it up in their pouch. They then rise again, though not without great labour, and continue hovering and fishing, with their head on one side as before.

This work they continue with great effort and industry till their bag is full, and then they fly to land to devour and digest at leisure the fruits of their industry. This, however, it would appear, they are not long in performing; for towards night they have another hungry call, and they again

reluctantly go to labour. At night, when their fishing is over, and the toil of the day crowned with success, these lazy birds retire a little way from the shore; and, though with the webbed feet and clumsy figure of a goose, they will be contented to perch no where but upon trees, among the light and airy tenants of the forest. There they take their repose for the night; and often spend a great part of the day, except such times as they are fishing, sitting in dismal solemnity, and, as it would seem, half asleep. Their attitude is, with the head resting upon their great bag, and that resting upon their breast. There they remain without motion, or once changing their situation, till the calls of hunger break their repose, and till they find it indispensably necessary to fill their magazine for a fresh meal. Thus their life is spent between sleeping and eating; and our author adds, that they are as foul as they are voracious, as they are every moment voiding excrements in heaps as large as one's fist.

The same indolent habits seem to attend them even in preparing for incubation, and defending their young when excluded. The female makes no preparation for her nest, nor seems to choose any place in preference to lay in; but drops her eggs on the bare ground to the number of five or six, and there continues to hatch them. Attached to the place, without any desire of defending her eggs or her young, she tamely sits, and suffers them to be taken from under her. Now and then she just ventures to peck, or to cry out when a person offers to beat her off.

She feeds her young with fish macerated for some time in her bag; and when they cry, flies off for a new supply. Labat tells us, that he took two of these when very young, and tied them by the leg to a post stuck into the ground, where he had the pleasure of seeing the old one for several days come to feed them, remaining with them the greatest part of the day, and spending the night on the branch of a tree that hung over them. By these means they were all three become so familiar, that they suffered themselves to be handled; and the young ones very kindly accepted whatever fish he offered them. These they always put first into their bag, and then swallowed at their leisure.

It seems, however, that they are but disagreeable and

useless domestics ; their gluttony can scarcely be satisfied ; their flesh smells very rancid ; and tastes a thousand times worse than it smells. The native Americans kill vast numbers ; not to eat, for they are not fit even for the banquet of a savage ; but to convert their large bags into purses and tobacco pouches. They bestow no small pains in dressing the skin with salt and ashes, rubbing it well with oil, and then forming it to their purpose. It thus becomes so soft and pliant, that the Spanish women sometimes adorn it with gold and embroidery to make work-bags of.

Yet with all the seeming habitude of this bird, it is not entirely incapable of instruction in a domestic state. Father Raymond assures us, that he has seen one so tame and well educated among the native Americans, that it would go off in the morning at the word of command, and return before night to its master, with its great pouch distended with plunder ; a part of which the savages would make it disgorge, and a part they would permit it to reserve for itself.

“The Pelican,” as Faber relates, “is not destitute of other qualifications. One of these which was brought alive to the duke of Bavaria’s court, where it lived forty years, seemed to be possessed of very uncommon sensations. It was much delighted in the company and conversation of men, and in music both vocal and instrumental : for it would willingly stand,” says he, “by those that sung, or sounded the trumpet ; and stretching out its head, and turning its ear to the music, listened very attentively to its harmony ; though its own voice was little pleasanter than the braying of an ass.” Gesner tells us, that the emperor Maximilian had a tame pelican, which lived for above eighty years, and that always attended his army on their march. It was one of the largest of the kind, and had a daily allowance by the emperor’s orders. As another proof of the great age to which the pelican lives, Aldrovandus makes mention of one of these birds that was kept several years at Mechlin, was verily believed to be fifty years old.—We often see these birds at our shows about town.

CHAP. III.

OF THE ALBATROSS, THE FIRST OF THE GULL KIND.

THOUGH this is one of the largest and most formidable birds of Africa and America, yet we have but few accounts to enlighten us in its history. The figure of the bird is thus described by Edwards: "The body is rather larger than that of a pelican; and its wings, when extended, ten feet from tip to tip. The bill, which is six inches long, is yellowish, and terminates in a crooked point. The top of the head is of a bright brown; the back is of a dirty deep spotted brown; and the belly and under the wings is white; the toes, which are webbed, are of a flesh colour."

Such are the principal traits in this bird's figure: but these lead us a very short way in its history; and our naturalists have thought fit to say nothing more. However, I am apt to believe this bird to be the same with that described by Wicquefort, under the title of the Alcatraz; its size, its colours, and its prey, incline me to think so. He describes it as a kind of great gull, as large in the body as a goose, of a brown colour, with a long bill, and living upon fish, of which they kill great numbers.

This bird is an inhabitant of the tropical climates, and also beyond them as far as the Straits of Magellan in the South Seas. It is one of the most fierce and formidable of the aquatic tribe, not only living upon fish, but also such small water-fowl as it can take by surprise. It preys, as all the gull kind do, upon the wing; and chiefly pursues the flying-fish, that are forced from the sea by the dolphins: The ocean in that part of the world presents a very different appearance from the seas with which we are surrounded. In our seas we see nothing but a dreary expanse, ruffled by winds, and seemingly forsaken by every class of animated nature. But the tropical seas, and the distant southern latitudes beyond them, are all alive with birds and fishes, pursuing and pursued. Every various species of the gull-kind are there seen hovering on the wing, at a thousand miles distance from the shore. The flying-fish are every moment rising to

escape from their pursuers of the deep, only to encounter equal dangers in the air. Just as they rise the dolphin is seen to dart after them, but generally in vain; the gull has more frequent success, and often takes them at their rise; while the albatross pursues the gull, and obliges it to relinquish its prey; so that the whole horizon presents but one living picture of rapacity and evasion.

So much is certain; but how far we are to credit Wicquefort, in what he adds concerning this bird, the reader is left to determine. "As these birds, except when they breed, live entirely remote from land, so they are often seen, as it should seem, sleeping in the air. At night, when they are pressed by slumber, they rise into the clouds as high as they can; there, putting their head under one wing, they beat the air with the other, and seem to take their ease. After a time, however, the weight of their bodies, only thus half supported, brings them down; and they are seen descending, with a pretty rapid motion, to the surface of the sea. Upon this they again put forth their efforts to rise; and thus alternately ascend and descend at their ease. But it sometimes happens," says my author, "that in these slumbering flights, they are off their guard, and fall upon deck, where they are taken."

What truth there may be in this account I will not take upon me to determine: but certain it is, that few birds float upon the air with more ease than the albatross, or support themselves a longer time in that element. They seem never to feel the accesses of fatigue; but night and day upon the wing, are always prowling, yet always emaciated and hungry.

But though this bird be one of the most formidable tyrants of the deep, there are some associations which even tyrants themselves form, to which they are induced either by caprice or necessity. The albatross seems to have a peculiar affection for the penguin, and a pleasure in its society. They are always seen to choose the same places for breeding; some distant uninhabited island, where the ground slants to the sea, as the penguin is not formed either for flying or climbing. In such places their nests are seen together, as if they stood in need of mutual assistance and protection. Captain Hunt, who for some time commanded at our settlement upon Falk-

land Islands, assures me, that he was often amazed at the union preserved between these birds, and the regularity with which they built together. In that bleak and desolate spot, where the birds had long continued undisturbed possessors, and no way dreaded the encroachment of men, they seemed to make their abode as comfortable as they expected it to be lasting. They were seen to build with an amazing degree of uniformity; their nests covering fields by thousands, and resembling a regular plantation. In the middle, on high, the albatross raised its nest, on heath, sticks, and long grass, about two feet above the surface: round this the penguins made their lower settlements, rather in holes in the ground, and most usually eight penguins to one albatross. Nothing is a stronger proof of Mr. Buffon's fine observation, that the presence of man not only destroys the society of meaner animals, but their instincts also. These nests are now, I am told, totally destroyed; the society is broke up; and the albatross and penguin have gone to breed upon more desert shores, in greater security.*

CHAP. IV.

THE CORMORANT.

THE Cormorant is about the size of a large Muscovy duck, and may be distinguished from all other birds of this kind, by its four toes being united by membranes together; and by the middle toe being toothed or notched like a saw, to assist it in holding its fishy prey. The head and neck of this bird are of a sooty blackness; and the body thick and heavy, more inclined in figure to that of the goose than the

* The Albatross, or man of war bird, has a straight bill, the upper mandible of which is crooked at the point, and the lower one truncated: the nostrils are oval, wide, prominent, and placed on each side the bill: the feet have three toes, all placed forwards. In the West Indies these birds are said to foretel the arrival of ships; which is frequently true, and may arise from a very natural cause. They always fish in fine weather; so that, when the wind is rough at sea, they retire into the harbours, where they are protected by the land; and the same wind that blows them in, brings likewise whatever vessels may be exposed to its fury, to seek a retreat from it.

gull. The bill is straight, till near the end, where the upper chap bends into a hook.

But notwithstanding the seeming heaviness of its make, there are few birds more powerfully predaceous. As soon as the winter approaches, they are seen dispersed along the sea-shore, and ascending up the mouths of fresh-water rivers, carrying destruction to all the finny tribe. They are most remarkably voracious, and have a most sudden digestion. Their appetite is for ever craving, and never satisfied. This gnawing sensation may probably be increased by the great quantity of small worms that fill their intestines, and which their unceasing gluttony contributes to engender.

Thus formed with the grossest appetites, this unclean bird has the most rank and disagreeable smell, and is more foetid than even carrion, when in its most healthful state. Its form, says an ingenious modern, is disagreeable; its voice is hoarse and croaking; and all its qualities obscene. No wonder then that Milton should make Satan personate this bird, when he sent him upon the basest purposes, to survey with pain the beauties of Paradise, and to sit devising death on the tree of life.* It has been remarked, however, of our poet, that the making a water-fowl perch upon a tree, implied no great acquaintance with the history of nature. In vindication of Milton, Aristotle expressly says, that the cormorant is the only water-fowl that sits on trees. We have already seen the pelican of this number; and the cormorant's toes seem as fit for perching upon trees as for swimming: so that our epic bard seems to have been as deeply versed in natural history as in criticism.

Indeed this bird seems to be of a multiform nature; and wherever fish are to be found, watches their migrations. It is seen as well by land as sea; it fishes in fresh-water lakes, as well as in the depths of the ocean; it builds in the cliffs of rocks, as well as on trees; and preys not only in the day-time, but by night.

Its indefatigable nature, and its great power in catching fish, were probably the motives that induced some nations to breed this bird up tame, for the purpose of fishing; and Willoughby assures us, it was once used in England for

* Vide Pennant's Zoology, p. 477.

that purpose. The description of their manner of fishing is thus delivered by Faber. "When they carry them out of the rooms where they are kept, to the fish-pools, they hoodwink them, that they may not be frightened by the way. When they are come to the rivers, they take off their hoods; and having tied a leather thong round the lower part of their necks, that they may not swallow down the fish they catch, they throw them into the river. They presently dive under water, and there for a long time, with wonderful swiftness, pursue the fish; and when they have caught them, rise to the top of the water, and pressing the fish lightly with their bills, swallow them; till each bird hath, after this manner, devoured five or six fishes. Then their keepers call them to the list, to which they readily fly; and, one after another, vomit up all their fish, a little bruised with the first nip, given in catching them. When they have done fishing, setting their birds on some high place, they loose the string from their necks, leaving the passage to the stomach free and open; and, for their reward, they throw them part of their prey; to each one or two fishes, which they will catch most dexterously, as they are falling in the air."

At present, the cormorant is trained up in every part of China for the same purpose, where there are many lakes and canals. "To this end," says Le Compte, "they are educated as men rear up spaniels or hawks, and one man can easily manage a hundred. The fisher carries them out into the lake, perched on the gunnel of his boat, where they continue tranquil, and expecting his orders with patience. When arrived at the proper place, at the first signal given each flies a different way to fulfil the task assigned it. It is very pleasant, on this occasion, to behold with what sagacity they portion out the lake or the canal where they are upon duty. They hunt about, they plunge, they rise an hundred times to the surface, until they have at last found their prey. They then seize it with their beak by the middle, and carry it without fail to their master. When the fish is too large, they then give each other mutual assistance: one seizes it by the head, the other by the tail, and in this manner carry it to the boat together. There the boat-man stretches out one of his long oars, on which they perch, and being delivered of

their burden, they fly off to pursue their sport. When they are wearied, he lets them rest for a while; but they are never fed till their work is over. In this manner, they supply a very plentiful table; but still their natural gluttony cannot be reclaimed even by education. They have always, while they fish, the same string fastened round their throats, to prevent them from devouring their prey, as otherwise they would at once satiate themselves, and discontinue their pursuit the moment they had filled their bellies."

As for the rest, the cormorant is the best fisher of all birds; and though fat and heavy with the quantity it devours, is nevertheless generally upon the wing. The great activity with which it pursues, and from a vast height drops down to dive after its prey, offers one of the most amusing spectacles to those who stand upon a cliff on the shore. This large bird is seldom seen in the air, but where there are fish below; but then they must be near the surface, before it will venture to souse upon them. If they are at a depth beyond what the impetus of its flight makes the cormorant capable of diving to, they certainly escape him; for this bird cannot move so fast under water, as the fish can swim. It seldom, however, makes an unsuccessful dip; and is often seen rising heavily, with a fish larger than it can readily devour. It sometimes also happens, that the cormorant has caught the fish by the tail; and consequently the fins prevent its being easily swallowed in that position. In this case, the bird is seen to toss its prey above its head, and very dexterously to catch it, when descending, by the proper end, and so swallow it with ease.*

CHAP. V.

OF THE GANNET, OR SOLAND GOOSE.

THE Gannet is of the size of a tame goose, but its wings much longer, being six feet over. The bill is six inches long, straight almost to the point, where it inclines down, and the sides are irregularly jagged, that it may hold its

* These birds build their nests on the highest part of the cliffs that hang over the sea: they lay three or more pale green eggs, about the size of those of a goose. In winter they disperse themselves along the shores, visiting the fresh-water ponds and lakes, where they commit great depredations among the fish.

prey with greater security. It differs from the cormorant in size, being larger; and its colour, which is chiefly white; and by its having no nostrils, but in their place a long furrow that reaches almost to the end of the bill. From the corner of the mouth is a narrow slip of black bare skin, that extends to the hind part of the head; beneath the skin is another that, like the pouch of the pelican, is dilatable, and of size sufficient to contain five or six entire herrings, which in the breeding season it carries at once to its mate or its young.

These birds, which subsist entirely upon fish, chiefly resort to those uninhabited islands where their food is found in plenty, and men seldom come to disturb them. The islands to the north of Scotland, the Skelig islands off the coasts of Kerry in Ireland, and those that lie in the north sea off Norway, abound with them. But it is on the Bass island, in the Frith of Edinburgh, where they are seen in the greatest abundance. "There is a small island," says the celebrated Harvey, "called the Bass, not more than a mile in circumference. The surface is almost wholly covered during the months of May and June with their nests, their eggs, and young. It is scarcely possible to walk without treading on them: the flocks of birds upon the wing, are so numerous, as to darken the air like a cloud; and their noise is such, that one cannot without difficulty be heard by the person next to him. When one looks down upon the sea from the precipice, its whole surface seems covered with infinite numbers of birds of different kinds, swimming and pursuing their prey. If, in sailing round the island, one surveys its hanging cliffs, in every craig, or fissure of the broken rocks, may be seen innumerable birds, of various sorts and sizes, more than the stars of heaven, when viewed in a serene night. If they are viewed at a distance, either receding, or in their approach to the island, they seem like one vast swarm of bees."

They are not less frequent upon the rocks of St. Kilda. Martin assures us, that the inhabitants of that small island consume annually near twenty-three thousand young birds of this species, besides an amazing quantity of their eggs. On these they principally subsist throughout the year; and from the number of these visitants, make an estimate of their plenty for the season. They preserve both the

eggs and fowls in small pyramidal stone buildings, covering them with turf ashes, to prevent the evaporation of their moisture.

The gannet is a bird of passage. In winter it seeks the more southern coasts of Cornwall, hovering over the shoals of herrings and pilchards that then come down from the northern seas ; its first appearance in the northern islands is in the beginning of spring ; and it continues to breed till the end of summer. But, in general, its motions are determined by the migrations of the immense shoals of herrings that come pouring down at that season through the British Channel, and supply all Europe, as well as this bird, with their spoil. The gannet assiduously attends the shoal in their passage, keeps with them in their whole circuit round our island, and shares with our fishermen this exhaustless banquet. As it is strong of wing, it never comes near the land ; but is constant to its prey. Wherever the gannet is seen, it is sure to announce to the fishermen the arrival of the finny tribe ; they then prepare their nets, and take the herrings by millions at a draught ; while the gannet, who came to give the first information, comes, though an unbidden guest, and often snatches its prey from the fisherman even in his boat. While the fishing season continues, the gannets are busily employed ; but when the pilchards disappear from our coasts, the gannet takes its leave to keep them company.

The cormorant has been remarked for the quickness of his sight ; yet in this the gannet seems to exceed him. It is possessed of a transparent membrane under the eye-lid, with which it covers the whole eye at pleasure, without obscuring the sight in the smallest degree. This seems a necessary provision for the security of the eyes of so weighty a creature, whose method of taking its prey, like that of the cormorant, is by darting headlong down from a height of a hundred feet or more into the water to seize it.—These birds are sometimes taken at sea, by fastening a pilchard to a board, which they leave floating. The gannet instantly pounces down from above upon the board, and is killed or maimed by the shock of a body where it expected no resistance.*

* Mr. Pennant says, that one of these birds flying over Penzance in Cornwall, saw some pilchards lying on a fir plank, where they had been

These birds breed but once a year, and lay but one egg, which being taken away, they lay another; if that is also taken, then a third; but never more for that season. Their egg is white, and rather less than that of the common goose; and their nest large, composed of such substances as are found floating on the surface of the sea. The young birds, during the first year, differ greatly in colour from the old ones; being of a dusky hue, speckled with numerous triangular white spots; and at that time resembling the colours of the speckled diver.

The Bass island, where they chiefly breed, belongs to one proprietor; so that care is taken never to fright away the birds when laying, or to shoot them upon the wing. By that means, they are so confident as to alight and feed their young ones close beside you. They feed only upon fish, as was observed; yet the young gannet is counted a great dainty by the Scots, and is sold very dear; so that the lord of the islet makes a considerable annual profit by the sale.

CHAP. VI.

OF THE SMALLER GULLS AND PETRELS.

HAVING described the manners of the great ones of this tribe, those of the smaller kinds may be easily inferred. They resemble the more powerful in their appetites for prey, but have not such certain methods of obtaining it. In general, therefore, the industry of this tribe, and their audacity, increase in proportion to their imbecility; the great gulls live at the most remote distance from man; the smaller are obliged to reside wherever they can take their prey; and to come into the most populous places, when solitude can no longer grant them a supply. In this class we may place the Gull, properly so called, of which there are above twenty different kinds; the Petrel, of which there are three; and the Sea-swallow, of which there are as many. The gulls may be distinguished by an angular knob on the lower chap; the petrels by their wanting this knob; and the sea-swallow by their bills, which are straight, placed for curing; and darting itself down with great violence, it struck its bill quite through an inch and quarter plank: it was killed on the spot.

slender, and sharp-pointed. They all, however, agree in their appetites, and their places of abode.

The gull, and all its varieties, is very well known in every part of the kingdom. It is seen with a slow-sailing flight, hovering over rivers to prey upon the smaller kinds of fish; it is seen following the ploughman in fallow fields to pick up insects; and when living animal food does not offer, it has even been known to eat carrion, and whatever else of the kind that offers. Gulls are found in great plenty in every place; but it is chiefly round our boldest rockiest shores that they are seen in the greatest abundance; it is there that the gull breeds and brings up its young; it is there that millions of them are heard screaming with discordant notes for months together.

Those who have been much upon our coasts know that there are two different kinds of shores; that which slants down to the water with a gentle declivity, and that which rises with a precipitate boldness, and seems set as a bulwark to repel the force of the invading deeps. It is to such shores as these that the whole tribe of the gull-kind resort, as the rocks offer them a retreat for their young, and the sea a sufficient supply. It is in the cavities of these rocks, of which the shore is composed, that the vast variety of sea-fowls retire to breed in safety. The waves beneath, that continually beat at the base, often wear the shore into an impending boldness; so that it seems to jut out over the water, while the raging of the sea makes the place inaccessible from below. These are the situations to which sea-fowl chiefly resort, and bring up their young in undisturbed security.

Those who have never observed our boldest coasts, have no idea of their tremendous sublimity. The boasted works of art, the highest towers, and the noblest domes, are but ant-hills when put in comparison: the single cavity of a rock often exhibits a coping higher than the ceiling of a Gothic Cathedral. The face of the shore offers to the view a wall of massive stone, ten times higher than our tallest steeples. What should we think of a precipice three quarters of a mile in height? and yet the rocks of St. Kilda are still higher! What must be our awe to approach the edge of that impending height, and to look down on the unfathomable vacuity below; to ponder on the terrors of falling

to the bottom, where the waves that swell like mountains are scarcely seen to curl on the surface, and the roar of an ocean a thousand leagues broad appears softer than the murmur of a brook! it is in these formidable mansions that myriads of sea-fowls are for ever seen sporting, flying in security down the depth, half a mile beneath the feet of the spectator. The crow and the chough avoid those frightful precipices; they choose smaller heights, where they are less exposed to the tempest; it is the cormorant, the gannet, the tarrock, and the terne, that venture to these dreadful retreats, and claim an undisturbed possession. To the spectator from above, those birds, though some of them are above the size of an eagle, seem scarcely as large as a swallow; and their loudest screaming is scarcely perceptible.

But the generality of our shores are not so formidable. Though they may rise two hundred fathoms above the surface, yet it often happens that the water forsakes the shore at the departure of the tide, and leaves a noble and delightful walk for curiosity on the beach. Not to mention the variety of shells with which the sand is strewed, the lofty rocks that hang over the spectator's head, and that seem but just kept from falling, produce in him no unpleasing gloom. If to this be added the fluttering, the screaming, and the pursuits of myriads of water-birds, all either intent on the duties of incubation, or roused at the presence of a stranger, nothing can compose a scene of more peculiar solemnity. To walk along the shore when the tide is departed, or to sit in the hollow of a rock when it is come in, attentive to the various sounds that gather on every side, above and below, may raise the mind to its highest and noblest exertions. The solemn roar of the waves swelling into and subsiding from the vast caverns beneath, the piercing note of the gull, the frequent chatter of the guillemot, the loud note of the hawk, the scream of the heron, and the hoarse deep periodical croaking of the cormorant, all unite to furnish out the grandeur of the scene, and turn the mind to HIM who is the essence of all sublimity.

Yet it often happens that the contemplation of a sea-shore produces ideas of an humbler kind, yet still not unpleasing. The various arts of these birds to seize their

prey, and sometimes to elude their pursuers, their society among each other, and their tenderness and care of their young, produce gentler sensations. It is ridiculous also now and then to see their various ways of imposing upon each other. It is common enough, for instance, with the arctic gull, to pursue the lesser gulls so long, that they drop their excrements through fear, which the hungry hunter quickly gobbles up before it ever reaches the water. In breeding too they have frequent contests; one bird who has no nest of her own, attempts to dispossess another, and puts herself in the place. This often happens among all the gull-kind: and I have seen the poor bird, thus displaced by her more powerful invader, sit near the nest in pensive discontent, while the other seemed quite comfortable in her new habitation. Yet this place of pre-eminence is not easily obtained; for the instant the invader goes to snatch a momentary sustenance, the other enters upon her own, and always ventures another battle before she relinquishes the justness of her claim. The contemplation of a cliff thus covered with hatching birds, affords a very agreeable entertainment; and as they sit upon the ledges of the rocks, one above another, with their white breasts forward, the whole group has not unaptly been compared to an apothecary's shop.

These birds, like all others of the rapacious kind, lay but few eggs; and hence, in many places, their number is daily seen to diminish. The lessening of so many rapacious birds may, at first sight, appear a benefit to mankind; but when we consider how many of the natives of our islands are sustained by their flesh, either fresh or salted, we shall find no satisfaction in thinking that these poor people may in time lose their chief support. The gull, in general, as was said, builds on the ledges of rocks, and lays from one egg to three, in a nest formed of long grass and sea-weed. Most of the kind are fishy tasted, with black stringy flesh; yet the young ones are better food: and of these, with several other birds of the penguin kind, the poor inhabitants of our northern islands make their wretched banquets. They have been long used to no other food; and even salted gull can be relished by those who know no better. Almost all delicacy is a relative thing; and the man who repines at the luxuries of a well-se

on his head a seaman's thick and shaggy cap, which defends him from the blows of the stones, if they be not too big; and then it costeth him his life: nevertheless, they continually put themselves in that danger, for the wretched body's food sake, hoping in God's mercy and protection, unto which the greatest part of them do devoutly recommend themselves when they go to work: otherwise, they say, there is no other great danger in it, except that it is a toilsome and artificial labour; for he that hath not learned to be so let down, and is not used thereto, is turned about with the rope, so that he soon groweth giddy, and can do nothing; but he that hath learned the art, considers it as a sport, swings himself on the rope, sets his feet against the rock, casts himself some fathoms from thence, and shoots himself to what place he will: he knows where the birds are, he understands how to sit on the line in the air, and how to hold the fowling-staff in his hand; striking therewith the birds that come or fly away: and when there are holes in the rocks, and it stretches itself out, making underneath as a ceiling under which the birds are, he knoweth how to shoot himself in among them, and there take firm footing. There, when he is in these holes, he maketh himself loose of the rope, which he fastens to a crag of the rock, that it may not slip from him to the outside of the cliff. He then goes about in the rock, taking the fowl either with his hands or the fowling-staff. Thus, when he hath killed as many birds as he thinks fit, he ties them in a bundle, and fastens them to a little rope, giving a sign, by pulling, that they should draw them up. When he has wrought thus the whole day, and desires to get up again, he sitteth once more upon the great rope, giving a new sign that they should pull him up; or else he worketh himself up, climbing along the rope, with his girdle full of birds. It is also usual, where there are not folks enough to hold the great rope, for the fowler to drive a post sloping into the earth, and to make a rope fast therefore, by which he lets himself down without any body's help, to work in the manner aforesaid. Some rocks are so formed that the person can go into their cavities by land.

“These manners are more terrible and dangerous to see than to describe; especially if one considers the steepness

and height of the rocks, it seeming impossible for a man, to approach them, much less to climb or descend. In some places, the fowlers are seen climbing where they can only fasten the ends of their toes and fingers ; not shunning such places, though there be a hundred fathom between them and the sea. It is a dear meat for these poor people, for which they must venture their lives ; and many, after long venturing, do at last perish therein.

“ When the fowl is brought home, a part thereof is eaten fresh ; another part, when there is much taken, being hung up for winter provision. The feathers are gathered to make merchandise of, for other expenses. The inhabitants get a great many of these fowls, as God giveth his blessing and fit weather. When it is dark and hazy, they take most ; for then the birds stay in the rocks : but in clear weather, and hot sun-shine, they seek the sea. When they prepare to depart for the season, they keep themselves most there, sitting on the cliffs towards the sea-side, where people get at them sometimes with boats, and take them with fowling-staves.”

Such is the account of this historian ; but we are not to suppose that all the birds caught in this manner are of the gull-kind : on the contrary, numbers of them are of the penguin kind ; auks, puffins, and guillemots. These all come, once a season, to breed in these recesses ; and retire in winter to fish in more southern climates.

CHAP. VII.

OF THE PENGUIN KIND : AND FIRST, OF THE GREAT MAGELLANIC PENGUIN.

THE gulls are long-winged, swift flyers, that hover over the most extensive seas, and dart down upon such fish as approach too near the surface. The penguin kind are but ill fitted for flight, and still less for walking. Every body must have seen the awkward manner in which a duck, either wild or tame, attempts to change place : they must recollect with what softness and ease a gull or a kite waves

its pinions, and with what a coil and flutter the duck attempts to move them; how many strokes it is obliged to give, in order to gather a little air; and even when it is thus raised, how soon it is fatigued with the force of its exertions, and obliged to take rest again. But the duck is not, in its natural state, half so unwieldy an animal as the whole tribe of the penguin kind. Their wings are much shorter, more scantily furnished with quills, and the whole pinion placed too forward to be usefully employed. For this reason, the largest of the penguin kind, that have a thick heavy body to raise, cannot fly at all. Their wings serve them rather as paddles to help them forward, when they attempt to move swiftly, and in a manner walk along the surface of the water. Even the smallest kinds seldom fly by choice; they flutter their wings with the swiftest efforts without making way; and though they have but a small weight of body to sustain, yet they seldom venture to quit the water, where they are provided with food and protection.

As the wings of the penguin tribe are unfitted for flight, their legs are still more awkwardly adapted for walking. This whole tribe have all above the knee hid within the belly: and nothing appears but two short legs, or feet, as some would call them, that seem stuck under the rump, and upon which the animal is very awkwardly supported. They seem, when sitting, or attempting to walk, like a dog that has been taught to sit up, or to move a minuet. Their short legs drive the body in progression from side to side; and were they not assisted by their wings, they could scarcely move faster than a tortoise.

This awkward position of the legs, which so unqualifies them for living upon land, adapts them admirably for a residence in water. In that, the legs placed behind the moving body, pushes it forward with the greater velocity; and these birds, like Indian canoes, are the swiftest in the water, by having their paddles in the rear. Our sailors, for this reason, give these birds the very homely, but expressive, name of *arse-feet*.

Nor are they less qualified for diving than swimming. By ever so little inclining their bodies forward, they lose their centre of gravity; and every stroke from their feet only tends to sink them the faster. In this manner they

can either dive at once to the bottom, or swim between two waters ; where they continue fishing for some minutes ; and then ascending, catch an instantaneous breath, to descend once more to renew their operations. Hence it is, that these birds, which are so defenceless, and so easily taken by land, are impregnable by water. If they perceive themselves pursued in the least, they instantly sink, and shew nothing more than their bills, till the enemy is withdrawn. Their very internal conformation assist their power of keeping long under water. Their lungs are fitted with numerous vacuities, by which they can take in a very large inspiration ; and this probably serves them for a length of time.

As they never visit land, except when they come to breed, their feathers take a colour from their situation. That part of them which has been continually bathed in the water, is white ; while their backs and wings are of different colours, according to the different species. They are also covered more warmly all over the body with feathers, than any other birds whatever ; so that the sea seems entirely their element : and but for the necessary duties of propagating their species, we should scarcely have the smallest opportunity of seeing them, and should be utterly unacquainted with their history.

Of all this tribe, the Magellanic Penguin is the largest, and the most remarkable. In size it approaches near that of a tame goose. It never flies, as its wings are very short, and covered with stiff hard feathers, and are always seen expanded, and hanging uselessly down by the bird's sides. The upper part of the head, back, and rump, are covered with stiff black feathers ; while the belly and breast, as is common with all of this kind, are of a snowy whiteness, except a line of black that is seen to cross the crop. The bill, which from the base to about half way is covered with wrinkles, is black, but marked crosswise with a stripe of yellow. They walk erect, with their heads on high, their fin-like wings hanging down like arms ; so that to see them at a distance, they look like so many children with white aprons. From hence they are said to unite in themselves the qualities of men, fowls, and fishes. Like men, they are upright ; like fowls, they are feathered ; and like fishes, they have fin-like instruments, that beat the water before, and serve for all the purposes of swimming, rather than flying.

They feed upon fish; and seldom come ashore, except in the breeding season. As the seas in that part of the world abound with a variety, they seldom want food; and their extreme fatness seems a proof of the plenty in which they live. They dive with great rapidity, and are voracious to a great degree. One of them, described by Clusius, though but very young, would swallow an entire herring at a mouthful, and often three successively before it was appeased. In consequence of this gluttonous appetite, their flesh is rank and fishy; though our sailors say, that *it is pretty good eating*. In some the flesh is so tough, and the feathers so thick, that they stand the blow of a scimitar without injury.

They are a bird of society; and, especially when they come on shore, they are seen drawn up in rank and file, upon the ledge of a rock, standing together with the albatross, as if in consultation. This is previous to their laying, which generally begins, in that part of the world, in the month of November. Their preparations for laying are attended with no great trouble, as a small depression in the earth, without any other nest, serves for this purpose. The warmth of their feathers and the heat of their bodies is such, that the progress of incubation is carried on very rapidly.

But there is a difference in the manner of this bird's nestling in other countries, which I can only ascribe to the frequent disturbances it has received from man or quadrupeds in its recesses. In some places, instead of contenting itself with a superficial depression in the earth, the penguin is found to burrow two or three yards deep: in other places it is seen to forsake the level, and to clamber up the ledge of a rock, where it lays its egg, and hatches it in that bleak exposed situation. These precautions may probably have been taken, in consequence of dear-bought experience. In those countries where the bird fears for her own safety, or that of her young, she may providently provide against danger, by digging, or even by climbing; for both which she is but ill adapted by nature. In those places, however, where the penguin has had but few visits from man, her nest is made, with the most confident security, in the middle of some large plain, where they are seen by thousands. In that unguarded situation, neither expecting nor fearing a

powerful enemy, they continue to sit brooding; and even when man comes among them, have at first no apprehension of their danger. Some of this tribe have been called, by our seamen, *the Booby*, from the total insensibility which they shew when they are sought to their destruction. But it is not considered that these birds have never been taught to know the dangers of a human enemy: it is against the fox or the vulture that they have learned to defend themselves; but they have no idea of injury from a being so very unlike their natural opposers. The penguins, therefore, when our seamen first came among them, tamely suffered themselves to be knocked on the head, without even attempting an escape. They have stood to be shot at in flocks, without offering to move, in silent wonder, till every one of their number has been destroyed. Their attachment to their nests was still more powerful; for the females tamely suffered the men to approach and take their eggs, without any resistance. But the experience of a few of those unfriendly visits, has long since taught them to be more upon their guard in choosing their situations; or to leave those retreats where they were so little able to oppose their invaders.

The penguin lays but one egg; and, in frequented shores, is found to burrow like a rabbit: sometimes three or four take possession of one hole, and hatch their young together. In the holes of the rocks, where nature has made them a retreat, several of this tribe, as Linnæus assures us, are seen together. There the females lay their single egg, in a common nest, and sit upon this, their general possession, by turns; while one is placed as a centinel, to give warning of approaching danger. The egg of the penguin, as well as of all this tribe, is very large for the size of the bird, being generally found bigger than that of a goose. But as there are many varieties of the penguin, and as they differ in size, from that of a Muscovy duck to a swan, the eggs differ in the same proportion.

CHAP. VIII.

OF THE AUK, PUFFIN, AND OTHER BIRDS OF THE
PENGUIN KIND.

OF a size far inferior to the penguin, but with nearly the same form, and exactly of the same appetites and manners, there is a very numerous tribe. These frequent our shores, and, like the penguin, have their legs placed behind. They have short wings, which are not totally incapable of flight; with round bills for seizing their prey, which is fish. They live upon the water, in which they are continually seen diving; and seldom venture upon land, except for the purposes of continuing their kind.

The first of this smaller tribe is the Great Northern Diver, which is nearly the size of a goose: it is beautifully variegated all over with many stripes, and differs from the penguin, in being much slenderer, and more elegantly formed. The Gray Speckled Diver does not exceed the size of a Muscovy Duck; and, except in size, greatly resembles the former. The Auk, which breeds on the islands of St. Kilda, and chiefly differs from the penguin in size and colour: it is smaller than a duck; and the whole of the breast and belly, as far as the middle of the throat, is white. The Guillemot is about the same size; it differs from the auk, in having a longer, a slenderer, and a straighter bill. The Scarlet-Throated Diver may be distinguished by its name; and the Puffin, or Coulterneb, is one of the most remarkable birds we know.

Words cannot easily describe the form of the bill of the puffin, which differs so greatly from that of any other bird. Those who have seen the coulter of a plough, may form some idea of the beak of this odd-looking animal. The bill is flat; but, very different from that of a duck, its edge is upwards: it is of a triangular figure, and ending in a sharp point, the upper chap bent a little downward, where it is joined to the head; and a certain callous substance encompassing its base, as in parrots. It is of two colours; ash-coloured near the base, and red towards the point. It has three furrows or grooves impressed in it; one in the livid

part, two in the red. The eyes are fenced with a protuberant skin, of a livid colour; and they are gray or ash-coloured. These are marks sufficient to distinguish this bird by; but its value to those in whose vicinity it breeds, renders it still more an object of curiosity.

The puffin, like all the rest of this kind, has its legs thrown so far back, that it can hardly move without tumbling. This makes it rise with difficulty, and subject to many falls before it gets upon the wing: but as it is a small bird, not much bigger than a pigeon, when it once rises, it can continue its flight with great celerity.

Both this and all the former build no nest; but lay their eggs either in the crevices of rocks, or in holes under ground near the shore. They chiefly choose the latter situation; for the puffin, the auk, the guillemot, and the rest, cannot easily rise to the nest when in a lofty situation. Many are the attempts these birds are seen to make to fly up to those nests which are so high above the surface. In rendering them inaccessible to mankind, they often render them almost inaccessible to themselves. They are frequently obliged to make three or four efforts, before they can come at the place of incubation. For this reason, the auk and guillemot, when they have once laid their single egg, which is extremely large for the size, seldom forsake it until it is excluded. The male, who is better furnished for flight, feeds the female during this interval; and so bare is the place where she sits, that the egg would often roll down from the rock, did not the body of the bird support it.

But the puffin seldom chooses these inaccessible and troublesome heights for its situation. Relying on its courage and the strength of its bill, with which it bites most terribly, it either makes or finds a hole in the ground, where to lay and bring forth its young. All the winter these birds, like the rest, are absent; visiting regions too remote for discovery. At the latter end of March, or the beginning of April, come over a troop of their spies or harbingers, that stay two or three days, as it were to view and search out for their former situations, and see whether all be well. This done, they once more depart; and about the beginning of May, return again with the whole army of their companions. But if the season happens to be stormy and tempestuous, and the sea troubled, the unfortunate voyagers undergo incredible hardships; and they are

found, by hundreds, cast away upon the shores, lean and perished with famine.* It is most probable, therefore, that this voyage is performed more on the water than in the air; and as they cannot fish in stormy weather, their strength is exhausted before they can arrive at their wished-for harbour.

The puffin, when it prepares for breeding, which always happens a few days after its arrival, begins to scrape up a hole in the ground not far from the shore; and when it has some way penetrated the earth, it then throws itself upon its back, and with bill and claws thus burrows inward, till it has dug a hole with several windings and turnings, from eight to ten feet deep. It particularly seeks to dig under a stone, where it expects the greatest security. In this fortified retreat it lays one egg; which, though the bird be not much bigger than a pigeon, is of the size of a hen's.

When the young one is excluded, the parent's industry and courage is incredible. Few birds or beasts will venture to attack them in their retreats. When the great sea-raven, as Jacobson informs us, comes to take away their young, the puffins boldly oppose him. Their meeting affords a most singular combat. As soon as the raven approaches, the puffin catches him under the throat with its beak, and sticks its claws into its breast, which makes the raven, with a loud screaming, attempt to get away; but the little bird still holds fast to the invader, nor lets him go till they both come to the sea, where they drop down together, and the raven is drowned; yet the raven is but too often successful; and, invading the puffin at the bottom of its hole, devours both the parent and its family.

But were a punishment to be inflicted for immorality in irrational animals, the puffin is justly a sufferer from invasion, as it is often itself one of the most terrible invaders. Near the isle of Anglesey is an islet called *Priestholm*, their flocks may be compared, for multitude, to swarms of bees. In another islet, called *the Calf of Man*, a bird of this kind, but of a different species, is seen in great abundance. In both places, numbers of rabbits are found to breed; but the puffin, unwilling to be at the trouble of making a hole, when there is one ready made, dispossess the rabbits, and it is not unlikely destroys their young. It is in these unjustly acquired retreats that the young puffins are found in great

* Willoughby's Ornith. p. 326.

numbers, and become a very valuable acquisition to the natives of the place. The old ones (I am now speaking of the Manks puffin) early in the morning, at break of day, leave their nests and young, and even the island; nor do they return till night-fall. All this time they are diligently employed in fishing for their young; so that their retreats on land, which in the morning were loud and clamorous, are now still and quiet, with not a wing stirring till the approach of dusk, when their screams once more announce their return. Whatever fish, or other food, they have procured in the day, by night begins to suffer a kind of half digestion, and is reduced to an oily matter, which is ejected from the stomach of the old ones into the mouth of the young. By this they are nourished, and become fat to an amazing degree. When they are arrived to their full growth, they who are entrusted by the lord of the island, draw them from their holes; and, that they may more readily keep an account of the number they take, cut off one foot as a token. Their flesh is said to be excessively rank; as they feed upon fish, especially sprats, and sea-weed; however, when they are pickled and preserved with spices, they are admired by those who are fond of high eating. We are told, that formerly their flesh was allowed by the church on Lenten days. They were, at that time, also taken by ferrets, as we do rabbits. At present, they are either dug out, or drawn out, from their burrows, with an hooked stick. They bite extremely hard, and keep such fast hold of whatsoever they seize upon, as not to be easily disengaged. Their noise, when taken, is very disagreeable, being like the efforts of a dumb person attempting to speak.

The constant depredation which these birds annually suffer, does not in the least seem to intimidate them, or drive them away; on the contrary, as the people say, the nest must be robbed, or the old ones will breed there no longer. All birds of this kind lay but one egg; yet if that be taken away, they will lay another, and so on to a third; which seems to imply, that robbing their nests does not much intimidate them from laying again. Those, however, whose nests have been thus destroyed, are often too late in bringing up their young; who, if they be not fledged and prepared for migration when all the rest depart, are left at land to shift for themselves. In August the whole tribe is seen to take leave of their surr.

mer residence ; nor are they observed any more till the return of the ensuing spring. It is probable that they sail away to more southern regions, as our mariners frequently see myriads of water-fowl upon their return, and steering usually to the north. Indeed the coldest countries seem to be their most favoured retreats ; and the number of water-fowl is much greater in those colder climates than in the warmer regions near the line. The quantity of oil which abounds in their bodies, serves as a defence against cold, and preserves them in vigour against its severity ; but the same provision of oil is rather detrimental in warm countries, as it turns rancid, and many of them die of disorders which arise from its putrefaction. In general, however, water-fowl can be properly said to be of no climate ; the element upon which they live being their proper residence. They necessarily spend a few months of summer upon land, to bring up their young ; but the rest of their time is probably consumed in their migrations, or near some unknown coasts, where their provision of fish is found in greatest abundance.

Before I go to the third general division of water-fowls, it may not be improper to observe, that there is one species of round-billed water-fowl that does not properly lie within any of the former distributions. This is the Gooseander ; a bird with the body and wings shaped like those of the penguin kind, but with legs not hid in the belly. It may be distinguished from all others by its bill, which is round, hooked at the point, and toothed, both upper and under chap, like a saw. Its colours are various and beautiful ; however, its manners and appetites entirely resemble those of the diver. It feeds upon fish, for which it dives ; and is said to build its nest upon trees, like the heron and the cormorant. It seems to form the shade between the penguin and the goose kind ; having a round bill like the one ; and unembarrassed legs, like the other. In the shape of the head, neck, and body, it resembles them both.

CHAP. IX.

OF BIRDS OF THE GOOSE KIND, PROPERLY SO CALLED.

THE Swan, the Goose, and the Duck, are leaders of a numerous, useful, and beautiful tribe of birds, that we have reclaimed from a state of nature, and have taught to live in dependence about us. To describe any of these, would be as superfluous as definitions usually are when given of things with which we are already well acquainted. There are few that have not had opportunities of seeing them, and whose ideas would not anticipate our description. But, though nothing be so easy as to distinguish these in general from each other, yet the largest of the duck-kind approach the goose so nearly, that it may be proper to mark the distinctions.

The marks of the goose are, a bigger body; large wings, a longer neck, a white ring about the rump, a bill thicker at the base, slenderer towards the tip; with shorter legs placed more forward on the body. They both have a waddling walk; but the duck, from the position of its legs, has it in a greater degree. By these marks, these similar tribes may be known asunder; and though the duck should be found to equal the goose in size, which sometimes happens, yet there are still other sufficient distinctions.

But they all agree in many particulars; and have a nearer affinity to each other than the neighbouring kinds in any other department. Their having been tamed has produced alterations in each, by which they differ as much from the wild ones of their respective kinds, as they do among themselves. There is nearly as much difference between the wild and the tame duck, as between some sorts of the duck and the goose; but still the characteristics of the kind are strongly marked and obvious; and this tribe can never be mistaken.

The bill is the first great obvious distinction of the goose kind from all of the feathered tribe. In other birds, it is round and wedge-like, or crooked at the end. In all the

goose-kind it is flat and broad, made for the purpose of skimming ponds and lakes of the mantling weeds that stand on the surface. The bills of other birds are made of a horny substance throughout; these have their inoffensive bills sheathed with a skin which covers them all over. The bill of every other bird seems, in some measure, formed for piercing or tearing; theirs are only fitted for shovelling up their food, which is chiefly of the vegetable kind.

Though these birds do not reject animal food when offered them, yet they can contentedly subsist upon vegetables, and seldom seek any other. They are easily provided for; wherever there is water, there seems to be plenty. All the other web-footed tribes are continually voracious, continually preying. These lead more harmless lives: the weeds on the surface of the water, or the insects at the bottom, the grass by the bank, or the fruits and corn in cultivated grounds, are sufficient to satisfy their easy appetites; yet these, like every other animal, will not reject flesh, if properly prepared for them; it is sufficient praise to them that they do not eagerly pursue it.

As their food is chiefly vegetables, so their fecundity is in proportion. We have had frequent opportunities to observe; that all the predatory tribes, whether of birds or quadrupeds, are barren and unfruitful. We have seen the lion with its two cubs; the eagle with the same number; and the penguin with even but one. Nature, that has supplied them with powers of destruction, has denied them fertility. But it is otherwise with these harmless animals I am describing. They seem formed to fill up the chasms in animated nature, caused by the voraciousness of others. They breed in great abundance, and lead their young to the pool the instant they are excluded.

As their food is simple, so their flesh is nourishing and wholesome. The swan was considered as a high delicacy among the ancients; the goose was abstained from as totally indigestible. Modern manners have inverted tastes; the goose is now become the favourite; and the swan is seldom brought to table, unless for the purposes of ostentation. But at all times the flesh of the duck was in high esteem; the ancients thought even more highly of it than we do. We are contented to eat it as a delicacy; they also considered it as a medicine; and Plutarch assures us, that Cato kept his

whole family in health, by feeding them with duck whenever they threatened to be out of order.

These qualities, of great fecundity, easy sustenance, and wholesome nourishment, have been found so considerable as to induce man to take these birds from a state of nature, and render them domestic. How long they have been thus dependants upon his pleasures is not known; for, from the earliest accounts, they were considered as familiars about him. The time must have been very remote; for there have been many changes wrought in their colours, their figures, and even their internal parts, by human cultivation. The different kinds of these birds, in a wild state, are simple in their colourings; when one has seen a wild goose or a wild duck, a description of its plumage will, to a feather, exactly correspond with that of any other. But in the tame kinds, no two of any species are exactly alike. Different in their size, their colours, and frequently in their general form, they seem the mere creatures of art; and having been so long dependent upon man for support, they seem to assume forms entirely suited to his pleasures or necessities.

CHAP. X.

OF THE SWAN, TAME AND WILD.

No bird makes a more indifferent figure upon land, or a more beautiful one in the water, than the Swan. When it ascends from its favourite element, its motions are awkward, and its neck is stretched forward with an air of stupidity; but when it is seen smoothly sailing along the water, commanding a thousand graceful attitudes, moving at pleasure without the smallest effort; "when it proudly rows its state," as Milton has it, "with arched neck, between its white wings mantling," there is not a more beautiful figure in all nature. In the exhibition of its form, there are no broken or harsh lines, no constrained or catching motions; but the roundest contours, and the easiest transitions; the eye wanders over every part with insatiable pleasure, and every part takes a new grace with a new motion.

This fine bird has long been rendered domestic ; and it is now a doubt whether there be any of the tame kind in a state of nature. The wild swan, though so strongly resembling this in colour and form, is yet a different bird ; for it is very differently formed within. The wild swan is less than the tame by almost a fourth ; for as the one weighs twenty pounds, the other only weighs sixteen pounds and three quarters. The colour of the tame swan is all over white ; that of the wild bird is, along the back and the tips of the wings, of an ash-colour. But these are slight differences compared to what are found upon dissection. In the tame swan, the windpipe sinks down into the lungs in the ordinary manner ; but in the wild, after a strange and wonderful contortion, like what we have seen in the crane, it enters through a hole formed in the breast-bone ; and being reflected therein, returns by the same aperture ; and being contracted into a narrow compass by a broad and bony cartilage, it is divided into two branches, which, before they enter the lungs, are dilated, and, as it were, swollen out into two cavities.

Such is the extraordinary difference between these two animals, which externally seem to be of one species. Whether it is in the power of long-continued captivity and domestication to produce this strange variety, between birds otherwise the same, I will not take upon me to determine. But certain it is, that our tame swan is no where to be found, at least in Europe, in a state of nature.

As it is not easy to account for this difference of conformation, so it is still more difficult to reconcile the accounts of the ancients with the experience of the moderns, concerning the vocal powers of this bird. The tame swan is one of the most silent of all birds ; and the wild one has a note extremely loud and disagreeable. It is probable, the convolutions of the windpipe may contribute to increase the clangor of it ; for such is the harshness of its voice, that the bird from thence has been called the hooper. In neither is there the smallest degree of melody ; nor have they, for above this century, been said to give specimens of the smallest musical abilities ; yet, notwithstanding this, it was the general opinion of antiquity, that the swan was the most melodious bird ; and that even to its death, its voice went on improving. It would show

no learning to produce what they have said upon the music of the swan: it has already been collected by Aldrovandus; and still more professedly by the Abbe Gedoyn, in the Transactions of the Academy of Belles Lettres. From these accounts, it appears that, while Plato, Aristotle, and Diodorus Siculus, believed the vocality of the swan, Pliny and Virgil seem to doubt that received opinion. In this equipoise of authority Aldrovandus seems to have determined in favour of the Greek philosophers; and the form of the windpipe in the wild swan, so much resembling a musical instrument, inclined his belief still more strongly. In aid of this also, came the testimony of Pendasius, who affirmed, that he had often heard swans sweetly singing in the lake of Mantua; as he was rowed up and down in a boat; as also of Olaus Wormius, who professed that many of his friends and scholars had heard them singing. "There was," says he, "in my family, a very honest young man, John Rostorph, a student in divinity, and a Norwedian by nation. This man did, upon his credit, and with the interposition of an oath, solemnly affirm, that once, in the territory of Dronten, as he was standing on the sea-shore, early in the morning, he heard an unusual and sweet murmur, composed of the most pleasant whistlings and sounds; he knew not at first whence they came, or how they were made, for he saw no man near to produce them; but looking round about him, and climbing to the top of a certain promontory, he there espied an infinite number of swans gathered together in a bay, and making the most delightful harmony; a sweeter in all his life-time he had never heard." These were accounts sufficient at least to keep opinion in suspense, though in contradiction to our own experience: but Aldrovandus, to put, as he supposed, the question past all doubt, gives us the testimony of a countryman of our own, from whom he had the relation. This honest man's name was Mr. Geo. Braun, who assured him, that nothing was more common in England than to hear swans sing; that they were bred in great numbers in the sea near London; and that every fleet of ships that returned from their voyages from distant countries, were met by swans, that came joyfully out to welcome their return, and salute them with a loud and cheerful singing! It was in this manner that Aldrovandus, that great and good man, was frequently imposed upon by the designing

and the needy : his unbounded curiosity drew round him people of every kind, and his generosity was as ready to reward falsehood as truth.—Poor Aldrovandus ! after having spent a vast fortune for the purposes of enlightening mankind ; after having collected more truth, and more falsehood, than any man ever did before him, he little thought of being reduced at last to want bread, to feel the ingratitude of his country, and to die a beggar in a public hospital !

Thus it appears that our modern authorities, in favour of the singing of swans, are rather suspicious, since they are reduced to this Mr. G. Braun, and John Rostorph, the native of a country remarkable for ignorance and credulity. It is probable the ancients had some mythological meaning in ascribing melody to the swan ; and as for the moderns, they scarcely deserve our regard. The swan, therefore, must be content with that share of fame which it possesses on the score of its beauty ; since the melody of its voice, without better testimony, will scarcely be admitted by even the credulous.

This beautiful bird is as delicate in its appetites, as elegant in its form. Its chief food is corn, bread, herbs growing in the water, and roots and seeds, which are found near the margin. It prepares a nest in some retired part of the bank, and chiefly where there is an islet in the stream. This is composed of water-plants, long grass, and sticks ; and the male and female assist in forming it with great assiduity. The swan lays seven or eight eggs, white, much larger than those of a goose, with a hard, and sometimes a tuberos, shell. It sits near two months before its young are excluded ; which are ash-coloured when they first leave the shell, and for some months after. It is not a little dangerous to approach the old ones when their little family are feeding round them. Their fears, as well as their pride, seem to take the alarm ; and they have sometimes been known to give a blow with their pinion, that has broke a man's leg or arm.

It is not till they are a twelvemonth old that the young swans change their colour with their plumage. All the stages of this bird's approach to maturity are slow, and seem to mark its longevity. It is two months hatching ; a year in growing to its proper size : and if, according to Pliny's observation, that those animals that are longest in the womb are the longest lived, the swan is the longest in the shell of

any bird we know, and is said to be remarkable for its longevity. Some say that it lives three hundred years; and Willoughby, who is in general diffident enough, seems to believe the report. A goose, as he justly observes, has been known to live a hundred; and the swan, from its superior size, and from its harder, firmer flesh, may naturally be supposed to live still longer.

Swans were formerly held in such great esteem, in England, that by an act of Edward the Fourth, none, except the son of the king, was permitted to keep a swan, unless possessed of five marks a year. By a subsequent act, the punishment for taking their eggs was imprisonment for a year and a day, and a fine at the king's will. At present, they are but little valued for the delicacy of their flesh; but many are still preserved for their beauty. We see multitudes on the Thames and Trent; but no where greater numbers than on the salt water inlet of the sea, near Abbotsbury, in Dorsetshire.*

CHAP. XI.

OF THE GOOSE, AND ITS VARIETIES.

THE Goose, in its domestic state, exhibits a variety of colours. The wild goose always retains the same marks; the whole upper part is ash-coloured; the breast and belly are of a dirty white; the bill is narrow at the base, and at the tip it is black; the legs are of a saffron colour, and the claws black. These marks are seldom found in the tame; whose bill is entirely red, and whose legs are entirely brown. The wild goose is rather less than the tame; but both inva-

* A species has lately been discovered in New Holland which at once puts an end to the proverbial point of a black swan. This rare and elegant bird, in its general appearance, bears the most striking resemblance to the tame swan, and has all those gracefully-varying attitudes which so eminently distinguish it from other inhabitants of the waters: but the plumage is of a full deep black, with a bill of the finest red, and white quilled feathers. The tip of the upper beak is blackish; and there is a yellow spot near it: the legs are black, and the feet somewhat paler.

riably retain a white ring round their tail, which shews that they are both descended from the same original.

The wild goose is supposed to breed in the northern parts of Europe; and, in the beginning of winter, to descend into more temperate regions. They are often seen flying at very great heights, in flocks, from fifty to a hundred, and seldom resting by day. Their cry is frequently heard when they are at an imperceptible distance above us; and this seems bandied from one to the other, as among hounds in the pursuit. Whether this be the note of mutual encouragement, or the necessary consequence of respiration, is doubtful; but they seldom exert it when they alight in these journies.

Upon their coming to the ground by day, they range themselves in a line, like cranes; and seem rather to have descended for rest, than for other refreshment. When they have sat in this manner for an hour or two, I have heard one of them, with a loud long note, sound a kind of charge, to which the rest punctually attended, and they pursued their journey with renewed alacrity. Their flight is very regularly arranged: they either go in a line abreast, or in two lines, joining in an angle in the middle. I doubt whether the form of their flight be thus arranged to cut the air with greater ease, as is commonly believed; I am more apt to think it is to present a smaller mark to fowlers from below. A bullet might easily reach them if huddled together in a flock, and the same discharge might destroy several at once; but, by their manner of flying, no shot from below can effect above one of them; and from the height at which they fly this is not easy to be hit.

The barnacle differs, in some respects, from both these; being less than either, with a black bill, much shorter than either of the preceding. It is scarcely necessary to combat the idle error of this bird's being bred from a shell sticking to ships's bottoms; it is well known to be hatched from an egg in the ordinary manner, and to differ in very few particulars from all the rest of its kind.

The Brent Goose is still less than the former, and not bigger than a Muscovy duck, except that the body is longer. The head, neck, and upper part of the breast, are black; but about the middle of the neck, on each side, are two small spots or lines of white, which together appear like a ring.

These, and many other varieties, are found in this kind, which agree in one common character of feeding upon vegetables; and being remarkable for their fecundity. Of these, however, the tame goose is the most fruitful.—Having less to fear from its enemies, leading a securer and a more plentiful life, its prolific powers increase in proportion to its ease; and though the wild goose seldom lays above eight eggs, the tame goose is often seen to lay above twenty. The female hatches her eggs with great assiduity; while the Gander visits her twice or thrice a day, and sometimes drives her off to take her place, where he sits with great state and composure.

But beyond that of all animals is his pride when the young are excluded: he seems then to consider himself as a champion, not only obliged to defend his young, but also to keep off the suspicion of danger; he pursues dogs and men that never attempt to molest him: and, though the most harmless thing alive, is then the most petulant and provoking. When, in this manner, he has pursued the calf or the mastiff to whose contempt alone he is indebted for safety, he returns to his female and her brood in triumph, clapping his wings, screaming, and shewing all the marks of conscious superiority. It is probable, however, these arts succeed in raising his importance among the tribe where they are displayed; and it is probable there is not a more respectable animal on earth to a goose than a gander!

A young goose is generally reckoned very good eating; yet the feathers of this bird still farther increase its value. I feel my obligations to this animal every word I write; for, however deficient a man's head may be, his pen is nimble enough upon every occasion: it is happy indeed for us that it requires no great effort to put it in motion. But the feathers of this bird are still as valuable in another capacity, as they make the softest and the warmest beds to sleep on.

Of goose-feathers most of our beds in Europe are composed; in the countries bordering on the Levant, and in all Asia, the use of them is utterly unknown. They there use mattresses, stuffed with wool, or camel's hair, or cotton; and the warmth of their climate may perhaps make them dispense with cushions of a softer kind. But how it happens that the ancients had not the use of feather-beds is to me surprising: Pliny tells us; indeed, that they made bolsters

of feathers to lay their heads on ; and this serves as a proof that they turned feathers to no other uses.

As feathers are a very valuable commodity, great numbers of geese are kept tame in the fens in Lincolnshire, which are plucked once or twice a year. These make a considerable article of commerce. The feathers of Somersetshire are most in esteem ; those of Ireland are reckoned the worst. Hudson's Bay also furnishes very fine feathers, supposed to be of the goose kind. The down of the swan is brought from Dantzic. The same place also sends us great quantities of the feathers of the cock and hen ; but Greenland, Iceland, and Norway, furnish the best feathers of all : and in this number we may reckon the Eider down, of which we shall take notice in its place. The best method of curing feathers is to lay them in a room, in an open exposure to the sun ; and when dried, to put them into bags, and beat them well with poles to get the dust off. But, after all, nothing will prevent, for a time, the heavy smell which arises from the putrefaction of the oil contained in every feather ; no exposure will draw this off, how long soever it be continued ; they must be lain upon, which is the only remedy ; and for this reason old feathers are much more valuable than new.

CHAP. XII

OF THE DUCK, AND ITS VARIETIES.

THE Tame Duck is the most easily reared of all our domestic animals. The very instincts of the young ones direct them to their favourite element ; and though they are conducted by a hen, yet they despise the admonitions of their leader.

This serves as an incontestable proof that all birds have their manners rather from nature than education. A falcon pursues the partridge, not because it is taught by the old one, but because its appetites make their importunate call

and narrow bill, a small hind-toe, and a sharp-pointed train. The former are called, by our decoy-men, *foreign ducks*; the latter are supposed to be natives of England. It would be tedious to enter into the minute varieties of such a number of birds; all agreeing in the same general figure, the same habits and mode of living, and differing in little more than their size and the colours of their plumage. In this tribe we may rank, as natives of our own European dominions, the Eider Duck, which is double the size of a common duck, with a black bill; the Velvet Duck, not so large, and with a yellow bill; the Scoter, with a knob at the base of a yellow bill; the Tufted Duck, adorned with a thick crest; the Scaup Duck, less than the common duck, with the bill of a grayish blue colour; the Golden Eye, with a large white spot at the corners of the mouth, resembling an eye; the Sheldrake, with the bill of a bright red, and swelling into a knob; the Mallard, which is the stock from whence our tame breed has probably been produced; the Pintail, with the two middle feathers of the tail three inches longer than the rest; the Pochard, with the head and neck of a bright bay; the Widgeon, with a lead-coloured bill, and the plumage of the back marked with narrow black and white undulated lines, but best known by its whistling sound; lastly, the Teal, which is the smallest of this kind, with the bill black, the head and upper part of the neck of a bright bay.—These are the most common birds of the duck kind among ourselves: but who can describe the amazing variety of this tribe if he extends his view to the different quarters of the world? The most noted of the foreign tribe are the Muscovy Duck, or, more properly speaking, the Musk Duck, so called from a supposed musky smell, with naked skin round the eyes, and which is a native of Africa; the Brazilian Duck, that is of the size of a goose, all over black except the tips of the wings; the American Wood Duck, with a variety of beautiful colours, and a plume of feathers that falls from the back of the head like a friar's cowl. These, and twenty others, might be added, were increasing the number of names the way to enlarge the sphere of our comprehension.

All these live in the manner of our domestic ducks, keeping together in flocks in the winter, and flying in pairs in summer, bringing up their young by the water-side, and

leading them to their food as soon as out of the shell. Their nests are usually built among heath or rushes; not far from the water, and they lay twelve, fourteen, or more eggs, before they sit: yet this is not always their method; the dangers they continually encounter from their ground situation, sometimes obliges them to change their manner of building; and their awkward nests are often seen exalted on the tops of trees. This must be a very great labour to perform, as the duck's bill is but ill formed for building a nest, and giving the materials of which it is composed a sufficient stability to stand the weather. The nest, whether high or low, is generally composed of singular materials. The longest grass, mixed with heath, and lined with the bird's own feathers, usually go to the composition: however, in proportion as the climate is colder, the nest is more artificially made, and more warmly lined. In the Arctic regions, nothing can exceed the great care, all of this kind take, to protect their eggs from the intenseness of the weather. While the gull and the penguin kind seem to disregard the severest cold, the duck, in those regions, forms itself a hole to lay in, shelters the approach, lines it with a layer of long grass and clay; within that another of moss; and, lastly, a warm coat of feathers, or down. The eider duck is particularly remarkable for the warmth of its nest. This bird, which, as was said, is above twice as large as the common duck, and resides in the colder climates, lays from six to eight eggs, making her nest among the rocks or the plants along the sea-shore. The external materials of the nest are such as are in common with the rest of the kind; but the inside lining, on which the eggs are immediately deposited, is at once the softest, warmest, and the lightest substance, with which we are acquainted. This is no other than the inside down which covers the breast of the bird in the breeding season. This the female plucks off with her bill, and furnishes the inside of her nest with a tapestry more valuable than the most skilful artists can produce. The natives watch the place where she begins to build, and, suffering her to lay, take away both the eggs and the nest. The duck, however, not discouraged by the first disappointment, builds and lays in the same place a second time; and this they in the same manner take away: the third time she builds, but the drake must supply the down from his breast to line the nest with:

and if this be robbed, they both forsake the place, and breed there no more. This down the natives take care to separate from the dirt and moss with which it is mixed: and though no people stand in more need of a warm covering than themselves, yet their necessities compel them to sell it to the more indolent and luxurious inhabitants of the south for brandy and tobacco.*

As they possess the faculties of flying and swimming, so they are in general birds of passage; and, it is most probable, perform their journies across the ocean, as well on the water as in the air. Those that migrate to this country, on the approach of winter, are seldom found so well-tasted or so fat as the fowls that continue with us the year round: their flesh is often lean, and still oftener fishy; which flavour it has probably contracted in the journey, as their food in the lakes of Lapland, from whence they descend, is generally of the insect kind.

As soon as they arrive among us, they are generally seen flying in flocks to make a survey of those lakes where they intend to take up their residence for the winter. In the choice of these they have two objects in view; to be near their food, and yet remote from interruption. Their chief aim is to choose some lake in the neighbourhood of a

* The Eider duck is principally found in the western Islands of Scotland, and on the coasts of Norway, Iceland, and Greenland. Its bill is black, and its plumage is a varied mixture of black and white; the female however is of a reddish brown colour, marked with black and dusky streaks. They generally build on small islands, not far from the shore, and the male continues on the watch near the shore while the female is sitting; but he leaves them when the brood is hatched. As soon as they are able to creep from the shell, the mother entices them to the water side, and taking them on her back, she swims a short distance with them; when she has got them a little way from the land, she dives suddenly, leaving them floating on the surface of the water to shift for themselves. After this they are seldom found on land.

But that which renders this bird so highly valued, is the celebrated Eider down, used for the beds and couches of the luxurious and the effeminate. This is plucked from the breast by the birds, in order to line their nests; and during the time that the female is sitting, those who are concerned in the traffic, remove her, and take away the down and superfluous eggs, and then carefully replace her. This is done several times, and the down is again produced by the birds, and she begins to lay afresh; and when the young ones leave the nest, it is completely plundered. One female will give about half a pound of down, which, when properly cleaned, is reduced to one half of that quantity.

marsh; where there is at the same time a cover of woods, and where insects are found in great abundance. Lakes, therefore, with a marsh on one side, and a wood on the other, are seldom without vast quantities of wild-fowl; and where a couple are seen at any time, that is a sufficient inducement to bring hundreds of others. The ducks flying in the air, are often lured down from their heights by the loud voice of the mallard from below. Nature seems to have furnished this bird with very particular faculties for calling. The windpipe, where it begins to enter the lungs, opens into a kind of bony cavity, where the sound is reflected as in a musical instrument, and is heard a great way off. To this call all the stragglers resort; and in a week or a fortnight's time, a lake, that before was quite naked, is black with water-fowl that have left their Lapland retreats, to keep company with our ducks who never stirred from home.

They generally choose that part of the lake where they are inaccessible to the approach of the fowler, in which they all appear huddled together, extremely busy, and very loud. What it is can employ them all the day is not easy to guess. There is no food for them at the place where they sit and cabal thus, as they choose the middle of the lake; and as for courtship, the season for that is not yet come; so that it is wonderful what can so busily keep them occupied. Not one of them seems a moment at rest. Now pursuing one another, now screaming, then all up at once, then down again; the whole seems one strange scene of bustle, with nothing to do.

They frequently go off in a more private manner by night to feed in the adjacent meadows and ditches, which they dare not venture to approach by day. In these nocturnal adventures they are often taken; for, though a timorous bird, yet they are easily deceived; and every spring seems to succeed in taking them. But the greatest quantities are taken in decoys; which, though well known near London, are yet untried in the remoter parts of the country. The manner of making and managing a decoy is as follows:—

A place is to be chosen for this purpose far remote from the common highway, and all noise of people. A decoy is best where there is a large pond surrounded by a wood, and beyond that a marshy and uncultivated country. When the place is chosen, the pool, if possible, is to be planted round

with willows, unless a wood answers the purpose of shading it on every side. On the south and north side of this pool are two, three, or four ditches or channels, made broad towards the pool, and growing narrower till they end in a point. These channels are to be covered over with nets, supported by hooped sticks bending from one side to the other; so that they form a vault or arch growing narrower and narrower to the point, where it is terminated by a tunnel-net, like that in which fish are caught in weirs. Along the banks of these channels so netted over, which are called pipes, many hedges are made of reeds slanting to the edge of the channel, the acute angles to the side next the pool. The whole apparatus, also, is to be hidden from the pool by a hedge of reeds along the margin, behind which the fowler manages his operations. The place being fitted in this manner, the fowler is to provide himself with a number of wild ducks made tame, which are called decoys. These are always to be fed at the mouth or entrance of the pipe, and to be accustomed to come at a whistle.

As soon as the evening is set in, *the decoy rises*, as they term it, and the wild-fowl feed during the night. If the evening be still, the noise of their wings, during their flight, is heard at a very great distance, and produces no unpleasant sensation. The fowler, when he finds a fit opportunity, and sees his decoy covered with fowl, walks about the pool, and observes into what pipe the birds gathered in the pool may be enticed or driven. Then casting hemp-seed, or some such seed as will float on the surface of the water, at the entrance, and up along the pipe, he whistles to his decoy-ducks, who instantly obey the summons, and come to the entrance of the pipe, in hopes of being fed as usual. Thither also they are followed by a whole flock of wild ones, who little suspect the danger preparing against them. Their sense of smelling, however, is very exquisite; and they would soon discover their enemy, but that the fowler always keeps a piece of turf burning at his nose, against which he breathes, and this prevents the effluvia of his person from reaching their exquisite senses. The wild-ducks, therefore, pursuing the decoy-ducks, are led into the broad mouth of the channel or pipe, nor have the least suspicion of the man, who keeps hidden behind one of the hedges. When they have got up the pipe, however, finding it grow more and

more narrow, they begin to suspect danger, and would return back; but they are now prevented by the man, who shews himself at the broad end below. Thither, therefore, they dare not return; and rise they may not, as they are kept by the net above from ascending. The only way left them, therefore, is the narrow-funnelled net at the bottom; into this they fly, and there they are taken.

It often happens, however, that the wild-fowl are in such a state of sleepiness or dozing, that they will not follow the decoy-ducks. Use is then generally made of a dog, who is taught his lesson. He passes backward and forward between the reed-hedges, in which there are little holes, both for the decoy-man to see, and for the little dog to pass through. This attracts the eye of the wild-fowl; who, prompted by curiosity, advance towards this little animal, while he all the time keeps playing among the reeds, nearer and nearer the funnel, till they follow him too far to recede. Sometimes the dog will not attract their attention till a red handkerchief, or something very singular, be put about him. The decoy-ducks never enter the funnel-net with the rest, being taught to dive under water as soon as the rest are driven in.

The general season for catching fowl in decoys is from the latter end of October till February. The taking them earlier is prohibited by an act of George the Second, which imposes a penalty of five shillings for every bird destroyed at any other season.

The Lincolnshire decoys are commonly let at a certain annual rent, from five pounds to twenty pounds a year; and some even amount to thirty. These principally contribute to supply the markets of London with wild-fowl. The number of ducks, widgeon, and teal, that are sent thither is amazing. Above thirty thousand have been sent up in one season from ten decoys in the neighbourhood of Wainfleet. This quantity makes them so cheap on the spot, that it is asserted, that several decoy-men would be glad to contract for years to deliver their ducks at the next town for ten pence the couple.

To this manner of taking the wild-fowl in England, I will subjoin another, still more extraordinary, frequently practised in China. Whenever the fowler sees a number of ducks settled in any particular splash of water, he sends off two or three gourds to float among them. These gourds resemble

our pompions; but, being made hollow, they swim on the surface of the water; and on one pool there may sometimes be seen twenty or thirty of these gourds floating together. The fowl at first are a little shy of coming near them; but by degrees they come nearer; and as all birds at last grow familiar with a scare-crow, the ducks gather about these, and amuse themselves by whetting their bills against them. When the birds are as familiar with the gourds as the fowler could wish, he then prepares to deceive them in good earnest. He hollows out one of these gourds large enough to put his head in; and, making holes to breathe and see through, he claps it on his head. Thus accoutred, he wades slowly into the water, keeping his body under, and nothing but his head in the gourd above the surface; and in that manner moves imperceptibly towards the fowls, who suspect no danger. At last, however, he fairly gets in among them; while they, having been long used to see gourds, take not the least fright while the enemy is in the very midst of them: and an insidious enemy he is; for ever as he approaches a fowl, he seizes it by the legs, and draws it in a jerk under water. There he fastens it under his girdle, and goes to the next, till he has thus loaded himself with as many as he can carry away. When he has got his quantity, without ever attempting to disturb the rest of the fowls on the pool, he slowly moves off again; and in this manner pays the flock three or four visits in a day. Of all the various artifices for catching fowl, this seems likely to be attended with the greatest success, as it is the most practised in China.

CHAP. XIII.

OF THE KING FISHER.

I WILL conclude this history of birds with one that seems to unite in itself somewhat of every class preceding. It seems at once possessed of appetites for prey like the rapacious kinds, with an attachment to water like the birds of

that element. It exhibits in its form the beautiful plumage of the peacock, the shadings of the humming-bird, the bill of the crane, and the short legs of the swallow. The bird I mean is the King-fisher, of which many extraordinary falsehoods have been propagated; and yet of which many extraordinary things remain to be said that are actually true.

The King-fisher is not much larger than a swallow; its shape is clumsy; the legs disproportionably small, and the bill disproportionably long: it is two inches from the base to the tip; the upper chap black, and the lower yellow: but the colours of this bird atone for its inelegant form; the crown of the head and the coverts of the wings are of a deep blackish green, spotted with bright azure; the back and tail are of the most resplendent azure; the whole under-side of the body is orange-coloured; a broad mark of the same passes from the bill beyond the eyes; beyond that is a large white spot; the tail is short, and consists of twelve feathers of a rich deep blue; the feet are of a reddish-yellow, and the three joints of the outmost toe adhere to the middle toe, while the inner toe adheres only by one.

From the diminutive size, the slender short legs, and the beautiful colours of this bird, no person would be led to suppose it one of the most rapacious little animals that skims the deep. Yet it is for ever on the wing, and feeds on fish, which it takes in surprising quantities, when we consider its size and figure. It chiefly frequents the banks of rivers, and takes its prey after the manner of the osprey, balancing itself at a certain distance above the water for a considerable space; then darting into the deep, and seizing the fish with inevitable certainty. While it remains suspended in the air, in a bright day, the plumage exhibits a beautiful variety of the most dazzling and brilliant colours. It might have been this extraordinary beauty that has given rise to fable; for whenever there is any thing uncommon, fancy is always willing to increase the wonder.*

* Mr. Montague, who paid much attention to the manners of this bird, says, that they never suspend themselves on the wing, and dart on their prey, like the osprey; but that they sit patiently on a bough over the water, and when a small fish comes near the surface, they dart on it, and seize it with their bill. He never could observe the old birds with any thing in their bills, when they went in to feed their young; from which he concludes that they eject it from their stomachs for this purpose.

Of this bird it has been said, that she built her nest on the water, and thus, in a few days, hatched and produced her young. But, to be uninterrupted in this task, she was said to be possessed of a charm to allay the fury of the waves; and during this period the mariner might sail with the greatest security. The ancient poets are full of these fables; their historians are not exempt from them. Cicero has written a long poem in praise of the halcyon, of which there remain but two lines. Even the emperor Gordian has written a poem on this subject, of which we have nothing remaining. These fables have been adopted each by one of the earliest fathers of the church. "Behold," says St. Ambrose, "the little bird, which in the midst of the winter lays her eggs on the sand by the shore. From that moment the winds are hushed; the sea becomes smooth; and the calm continues for fourteen days. This is the time she requires; seven days to hatch, and seven days to foster her young. Their Creator has taught these little animals to make their nest in the midst of the most stormy season, only to manifest his kindness by granting them a lasting calm. The seamen are not ignorant of this blessing; they call this interval of fair weather their *halcyon days*; and they are particularly careful to seize the opportunity, as then they need fear no interruption." This, and a hundred other instances, might be given of the credulity of mankind with respect to this bird; they entered into speculations concerning the manner of her calming the deep, the formation of her nest, and her peculiar sagacity; at present we do not speculate because we know, with respect to our king-fisher, that most of the facts are false. It may be alleged, indeed, with some show of reason, that the halcyon of the ancients was a different bird from our king-fisher; it may be urged, that many birds, especially on the Indian ocean, build a floating nest upon the sea; but still the history of the ancient halcyon is clogged with endless fable; and it is but an indifferent method to vindicate falsehood, by shewing that a part of the story is true.

The king-fisher with which we are acquainted at present, has none of those powers of allaying the storm, or building upon the waves; it is contented to make its nest on the banks of rivers, in such situations as not to be

affected by the rising of the stream. When it has found a place for its purpose, it hollows out with its bill a hole about a yard deep; or if it finds the deserted hole of a rat, or one caused by the root of a tree decaying, it takes quiet possession. This hole it enlarges at the bottom to a good size; and lining it with the down of the willow, lays its eggs there without any further preparation.

Its nest, or rather hole, is very different from that described by the ancients, by whom it is said to be made in the shape of a long-necked gourd of the bones of the sea-needle. The bones, indeed, are found there in great quantities, as well as the scales of fishes; but these are the remains of the bird's food, and by no means brought there for the purposes of warmth or convenience. The king-fisher, as Bellonius says, feeds upon fish, but is incapable of digesting the bones and scales, which he throws up again, as eagles and owls are seen to do a part of their prey. These fill the bird's nest of course; and although they seem as if designedly placed there, are only a kind of nuisance.

In these holes, which, from the remains of fish brought there, are very foetid, the king-fisher is often found with from five eggs to nine. There the female continues to hatch, even though disturbed; and though the nest be robbed, she will again return and lay there. "I have had one of those females brought me," says Reaumur, "which was taken from her nest about three leagues from my house. After admiring the beauty of her colours, I let her fly again, when the fond creature was instantly seen to return back to the nest where she had just before been made a captive. There, joining the male, she again began to lay, though it was for the third time, and though the season was very far advanced. At each time she had seven eggs. The older the nest is, the greater quantity of fish-bones and scales does it contain: these are disposed without any order; and sometimes take up a good deal of room."

The female begins to lay early in the season; and excludes her first brood about the beginning of April. The male, whose fidelity exceeds even that of the turtle, brings her large provisions of fish while she is thus employed; and she, contrary to most other birds, is found plump and fat at that season. The male, that used to twitter before this, now enters the nest as quietly and as privately as possible,

The young ones are hatched at the expiration of twenty days ; but are seen to differ as well in their size as in their beauty.

As the ancients have had their fables concerning this bird, so have the modern vulgar. It is an opinion generally received among them, that the flesh of the king-fisher will not corrupt, and that it will even banish all vermin. This has no better foundation than that which is said of its always pointing, when hung up dead, with its breast to the north. The only truth which can be affirmed of this bird, when killed, is, that its flesh is utterly unfit to be eaten ; while its beautiful plumage preserves its lustre longer than that of any other bird we know.

Having thus given a short history of birds, I own I cannot take leave of this most beautiful part of the creation without reluctance. These splendid inhabitants of the air possess all those qualities that can soothe the heart, and cheer the fancy. The brightest colours, the roundest forms, the most active manners, and the sweetest music. In sending the imagination in pursuit of these, in following them to the chirping grove, the screaming precipice, or the glassy deep, the mind naturally lost the sense of its own situation, and, attentive to their little sports, almost forgot the task of describing them. Innocently to amuse the imagination in this dream of life is wisdom ; and nothing is useless that, by furnishing mental employment, keeps us for a while in oblivion of those stronger appetites that lead to evil. But every rank and state of mankind may find something to imitate in those delightful songsters, and we may not only employ the time, but mend our lives, by the contemplation. From their courage in defence of their young, and their assiduity in incubation, the coward may learn to be brave, and the rash to be patient. The inviolable attachment of some to their companions may give lessons of fidelity ; and the connubial tenderness of others be a monitor to the incontinent. Even those that are tyrants by nature never spread capricious destruction ; and, unlike man, never inflict a pain but when urged by necessity.

PART IV.

OF FISHES.

BOOK I.

OF FISHES IN GENERAL.

CHAP. I.

INTRODUCTION.

THE ocean is the great receptacle of fishes. It has been thought, by some, that all fish are naturally of that salt element; and that they have mounted up into fresh water by some accidental migration. A few still swim up rivers to deposit their spawn; but of the great body of fishes, of which the size is enormous, and the shoals are endless, those all keep to the sea, and would quickly expire in fresh water. In that extensive and undiscovered abode, millions reside, whose manners are a secret to us, and whose very form is unknown. The curiosity of mankind, indeed, has drawn some from their depths, and his wants many more: with the figure of these at least he is acquainted; but for their pursuits, migrations, societies, antipathies, pleasures, times of gestation, and manner of bringing forth, these are all hidden in the turbulent element that protects them.

The number of fish to which we have given names, and of the figure, at least, of which we know something, according to Linnæus, are above four hundred. Thus to appearance, indeed, the history of fish is tolerably copious; but when we come to examine, it will be found that of the greatest part of these we know very little. Those qualities, singularities, or

advantages, that render animals worth naming, still remain to be discovered. The history of fishes, therefore, has little in it entertaining: for our philosophers hitherto, instead of studying their nature, have been employed in increasing their catalogues; and the reader, instead of observations or facts, is presented with a long list of names, that disgust him with their barren superfluity. It must displease him to see the language of science increasing, while the science itself has nothing to repay the increasing tax laid upon his memory.

Most fish offer us the same external form; sharp at either end, and swelling in the middle; by which they are enabled to traverse the fluid which they inhabit, with greater celerity and ease. That peculiar shape which Nature has granted to most fishes, we endeavour to imitate in such vessels as are designed to sail with the greatest swiftness: however, the progress of a machine moved forward in the water by human contrivance, is nothing to the rapidity of an animal destined by Nature to reside there. Any of the large fish overtake a ship in full sail with great ease, play round it without effort, and outstrip it at pleasure. Every part of the body seems exerted in this dispatch; the fins, the tail, and the motion of the whole back-bone, assist progression; and it is to that flexibility of body at which art cannot arrive, that fishes owe their great velocity.

The chief instruments in a fish's motion, are the fins; which, in some fish, are much more numerous than in others. A fish completely fitted for sailing, is furnished with not less than two pair; also three single fins, two above and one below. Thus equipped, it migrates with the utmost rapidity, and takes voyages of a thousand leagues in a season. But it does not always happen that such fish as have the greatest number of fins have the swiftest motion; the shark is thought to be one of the swiftest swimmers, yet it wants the ventral or belly fins; the haddock does not move so swift, yet it is completely fitted for motion.

But the fins serve not only to assist the animal in progression, but in rising or sinking, in turning, or even leaping out of the water. To answer these purposes, the pectoral fins serve, like oars, to push the animal forward;

they are placed at some little distance behind the opening of the gills ; they are generally large and strong, and answer the same purposes to the fish in the water, as wings do to a bird in the air. With the help of these, and by their continued motion, the flying-fish is sometimes seen to rise out of the water, and to fly above an hundred yards ; till, fatigued with its exertions, it is obliged to sink down again. These also serve to balance the fish's head, when it is too large for the body, and keep it from tumbling down to the bottom, as is seen in large-headed fishes, when the pectoral fins are cut off. Next these are seen the ventral fins, placed towards the lower part of the body, under the belly ; these are always seen to lie flat on the water, in whatever situation the fish may be ; and they serve rather to raise or depress the fish in its element, than to assist progressive motion. The dorsal fin is situated along the ridge of the back ; and serves to keep it in equilibrio, as also to assist its progressive motion. In many fishes this is wanting ; but in all flat fishes it is very large, as the pectoral fins are proportionably small. The anal fin occupies that part of the fish which lies between the anus and the tail ; and this serves to keep the fish in its upright or vertical situation. Lastly, the tail, which in some fishes is flat, and upright in others, seems the grand instrument of motion ; the fins are but all subservient to it, and give direction to its great impetus, by which the fish seems to dart forward with so much velocity. To explain all this by experiment ; a carp is taken, and put into a large vessel. The fish, in a state of repose, spreads all its fins, and seems to rest upon its pectoral and ventral fins near the bottom ; if the fish folds up (for it has the power of folding) either of its pectoral fins, it inclines to the same side ; folding the right pectoral fin, the fish inclines to the right side ; folding the left fin, it inclines to that side in turn. When the fish desires to have a retrograde motion, striking with the pectoral fins, in a contrary direction, effectually produces it. If the fish desires to turn, a blow from the tail sends it about ; but if the tail strikes both ways, then the motion is progressive. In pursuance of these observations, if the dorsal and ventral fins be cut off, the fish reels to the right and left, and endeavours to supply its loss by keeping the rest of its fins in constant employment. If

the right pectoral fin be cut off, the fish leans to that side; if the ventral fin on the same side be cut away, then it loses its equilibrium entirely. When the tail is cut off, the fish loses all motion, and gives itself up to where the water impels it.

From hence it appears, that each of these instruments has a peculiar use assigned it; but, at the same time, that they all conspire to assist each other's motions. Some fish are possessed of all, whose motions are yet not the swiftest; others have but a part, and yet dart in the water with great rapidity. The number, the size, and the situation of the fins, therefore, seem rather calculated to correspond with the animal's figure, than solely to answer the purposes of promoting its speed. Where the head is large and heavy, there the pectoral fins are large, and placed forward, to keep it from oversetting. Where the head is small, or produced out into a long beak, and therefore not too heavy for the tail, the pectoral fins are small, and the ventral fins totally wanting.

As most animals that live upon land are furnished with a covering to keep off the injuries of the weather, so all that live in the water are covered with a slimy glutinous matter, that, like a sheath, defends their bodies from the immediate contact of the surrounding fluid. This substance may be considered as a secretion from the pores of the animal's body; and serving not only to defend, but to assist the fish's easy progress through the water. Beneath this, in many kinds, is found a strong covering of scales, that, like a coat of mail, defend it still more powerfully; and under that, before we come to the muscular parts of the body, an oily substance, which supplies the requisite warmth and vigour.

The fish thus protected and fitted for motion in its natural element, seems as well furnished with the means of happiness as quadrupeds or birds; but if we come to examine its faculties more nearly, we shall find it very much their inferior. The sense of touching, which beasts and birds have in a small degree, the fish, covered up in its own coat of mail, can have but little acquaintance with.

The sense of smelling, which in beasts is so exquisite, and among birds is not wholly unknown, seems given to fishes in a very moderate proportion. It is true, that all

fishes have one or more nostrils; and even those that have not the holes perceptible without, yet have the proper formation of the bones for smelling within. But as air is the only medium we know for the distribution of odours, it cannot be supposed that these animals, residing in water, can be possessed of any power of being affected by them. If they have any perception of smells, it must be in the same manner as we distinguish by our taste; and, it is probable, the olfactory membrane in fish serves them instead of a distinguishing palate: and by this they judge of substances, that, first tincturing the water with their vapours, are thus sent to the nostrils of the fish, and no doubt produce some kind of sensation. This most probably must be the use of that organ in those animals, as otherwise there would be the instruments of a sense provided for them, without any power in them of enjoyment.

As to tasting, they seem to make very little distinction; the palate of most fish is hard and bony, and consequently incapable of the powers of relishing different substances. This sense among quadrupeds, who possess it in some degree, arises from the soft pliancy of the organ, and the delicacy of the skin which covers the instruments of tasting; it may be considered, in them, as a more perfect and delicate kind of feeling: in the bony palate of fish, therefore, all powers of distinguishing are utterly taken away; and we have accordingly often seen these voracious animals swallow the fisherman's plummet instead of the bait.

Hearing in fishes is found still more imperfect, if it be found at all. Certain it is, that anatomists have not been able to discover, except in the whale kind, the smallest traces of an organ, either within or without the head of fishes. It is true, that in the centre of the brain of some fishes are found now and then some little bones, the number and situation of which are entirely accidental. These bones, Mr. Klein has supposed to constitute the organ of hearing; but if we consider their entire dissimilitude to the bones that serve for hearing in other animals, we shall be of another opinion. The greatest number of fishes are deprived of these bones entirely: some fish have them in small numbers, and others in abundance; yet neither testify any excellence

or defect in hearing. Indeed, of what advantage would this sense be to animals that are incapable of making themselves heard? They have no voice to communicate to each other, and consequently have no need of an organ for hearing. Mr. Gouan, who kept some gold fishes in a vase, informs us, that whatever noise he made, he could neither disturb nor terrify them; he halloed as loud as he could, putting a piece of paper between his mouth and the water, to prevent the vibrations from affecting the surface; and the fishes still seemed insensible: but when the paper was removed, and the sound had its full play upon the water, the fishes seemed instantly to feel the change, and shrunk to the bottom. From this we may learn, that fishes are as deaf as they are mute; and that when they seem to hear the call of a whistle or a bell at the edge of a pond, it is rather the vibrations of the sound that affect the water, by which they are excited, than any sounds that they hear.

Seeing seems to be the sense fishes are possessed of in the greatest degree; and yet even this seems obscure, if we compare it to that of other animals. The eye, in almost all fish, is covered with the same transparent skin that covers the rest of the head; and which, probably, serves to defend it in the water, as they are without eye-lids. The globe is more depressed anteriorly, and is furnished behind with a muscle, which serves to lengthen or flatten it, according to the necessities of the animal. The crystalline humour, which in quadrupeds is flat, and of the shape of a button-mould, in fishes is as round as a pea; or sometimes oblong, like an egg. From all this it appears that fish are extremely near-sighted; and that even in the water they can see objects at a very small distance. This distance might very easily be ascertained, by comparing the refraction of bodies in the water with that formed by a lens that is spherical. Those unskilled in mathematical calculations, will have a general idea of this, from the glasses used by near-sighted people. Those whose crystalline humour is too convex, or, in other words, too round, are always very near-sighted; and obliged to use concave glasses, to correct the imperfections of nature. The crystalline humour of fish is so round, that it is not in the power of any glasses, much less of water, to

correct their vision. This crystalline humour in fishes all must have seen; being that little hard pea-like substance which is found in their eyes after boiling. In the natural state it is transparent, and not much harder than a jelly.

From all this it appears how far fish fall behind terrestrial animals in their sensations, and consequently in their enjoyments. Even their brain, which is by some supposed to be of a size with every animal's understanding, shews that fish are inferior even to birds in this particular. It is divided into three parts, surrounded with a whitish froth, and gives off nerves as well to the sense of sight as of smelling. In some fish it is gray, in others white; in some it is flatted, in others round; but in all extremely small, compared to the bulk of the animal.

Thus Nature seems to have fitted these animals with appetites and powers of an inferior kind; and formed them for a sort of passive existence in the obscure and heavy element to which they are consigned. To preserve their own existence, and to continue it to their posterity, fill up the whole circle of their pursuits and enjoyments; to these they are impelled rather by necessity than choice, and seem mechanically excited to every fruition. Their senses are incapable of making any distinctions; but they drive forward in pursuit of whatever they can swallow, conquer, or enjoy.

A ceaseless desire of food seems to give the ruling impulse to all their motions. This appetite impels them to encounter every danger; and indeed their rapacity seems insatiable. Even when taken out of the water, and almost expiring, they greedily swallow the very bait by which they were allured to destruction.

The maw is, in general, placed next the mouth, and though possessed of no sensible heat, is, however, endued with a surprising faculty of digestion. Its digestive power seems, in some measure, to increase with the quantity of food it is supplied with; a single pike having been known to devour a hundred roaches in three days. Its faculties also are as extraordinary; for it digests not only fish, but much harder substances; prawns, crabs, and lobsters, shells and all. These the cod or the sturgeon will not only devour, but dissolve down, though their shells are so much harder than the sides of the stomach which con-

tains them. This amazing faculty in the cold maw of fishes, has justly excited the curiosity of philosophers; and has effectually overturned the system of those who supposed that the heat of the stomach was alone a sufficient instrument for digestion. The truth seems to be, and some experiments of the skilful Dr. Hunter seem to evince, that there is a power of animal assimilation lodged in the stomach of all creatures, which we can neither describe nor define, converting the substances they swallow into a fluid fitted for their own peculiar support. This is done neither by trituration, nor by warmth, nor by motion, nor by a dissolving fluid, nor by their united efforts; but by some principle in the stomach yet unknown, which acts in a different manner from all kinds of artificial maceration. The meat taken into the stomach or maw is often seen, though very near being digested, still to retain its original form, and ready for a total dissolution, while it appears to the eye as yet untouched by the force of the stomach. This animal power is lodged in the maw of fishes, in a greater degree than in any other creatures; their digestive powers are quick, and their appetites are ever craving.

Yet though fish are thus hungry, and for ever prowling, no animals can suffer the want of food for so long a time. The gold and silver fish we keep in vases seem never to want any nourishment at all: whether it be that they feed on the water-insects, too minute for our observation, or that water alone is a sufficient supply, is not evident; but they are often seen for months without apparent sustenance. Even the pike, the most voracious of fishes, will live in a pond where there is none but himself; and, what is more extraordinary, will be often found to thrive there.

Still, however, fishes are of all other animals the most voracious and insatiable. Whatever any of them is able to swallow, possessed of life, seems to be considered as the most desirable food. Some that have very small mouths feed upon worms and the spawn of other fish; others, whose mouths are larger, seek larger prey; it matters not of what kind, whether of another or their own. Those with the largest mouths pursue almost every thing that has life; and often meet each other in fierce opposition, when the fish with the largest swallow comes off with the victory and devours its antagonist.

Thus are they irritated by the continual desire of satisfying their hunger; and the life of a fish, from the smallest to the greatest, is but one scene of hostility, violence, and evasion. But the smaller fry stand no chance in the unequal combat; and their usual way of escaping is by swimming into those shallows where the greater are unable, or too heavy, to pursue. There they become invaders in turn, and live upon the spawn of larger fish, which they find floating upon the surface of the water; yet there are dangers attending them in every place. Even in the shallows, the mussel, the oyster, and the scallop, lie in ambush at the bottom, with their shells open, and whatever little fish inadvertently approaches into contact, they at once close their shells upon him, and devour the imprisoned prey at their leisure.

Nor is the pursuit of fishes, like that of terrestrial animals, confined to a single region, or to one effort: shoals of one species follow those of another through vast tracks of ocean, from the vicinity of the pole, even down to the equator. Thus the cod, from the banks of Newfoundland, pursues the whiting, which flies before it even to the southern shores of Spain. The cachelot is said, in the same manner, to pursue a shoal of herrings, and to swallow thousands at a gulp.

This may be one cause of the annual migration of fishes from one part of the ocean to the other; but there are other motives which come in aid of this also. Fishes may be induced to change the place of their residence, for one more suited to their constitutions, or more adapted to depositing their spawn. It is remarkable that no fish are fond of very cold waters, and generally frequent those places where it is warmest. Thus, in summer, they are seen in great numbers in the shallows near the shore, where the sun has power to warm the water to the bottom; on the contrary, in winter, they are found towards the bottom in the deep sea; for the cold of the atmosphere is not sufficiently penetrating to reach them at those great depths. Cold produces the same effect upon fresh-water fishes; and when they are often seen dead after severe frosts, it is most probable that they have been killed by the severity of the cold, as well as by their being excluded by the ice from air.

All fish live in the water ; yet they all stand in need of air for their support. Those of the whale kind, indeed, breathe air in the same manner as we do, and come to the surface every two or three minutes to take a fresh inspiration ; but those which continue entirely under water are yet under a necessity of being supplied with air, or they will expire in a very few minutes. We sometimes see all the fish of a pond killed, when the ice every where covers the surface of the water, and thus keeps off the air from the sub-adjacent fluid. If a hole be made in the ice, the fish will be seen to come all to that part, in order to take the benefit of a fresh supply. Should a carp, in a large vase of water, be placed under an air-pump, and then be deprived of its air, during the operation a number of bubbles will be seen standing on the surface of the fish's body ; soon after the animal will appear to breathe swifter, and with greater difficulty ; it will then be seen to rise towards the surface, to get more air ; the bubbles on its surface begin to disappear ; the belly, that was before swollen, will then fall of a sudden ; and the animal sinks expiring and convulsed at the bottom.

So very necessary is air to all animals, but particularly to fish ; that, as was said, they can live but a few minutes without it ; yet nothing is more difficult to be accounted for than the manner in which they obtain this necessary supply. Those who have seen a fish in the water must remember the motion of its lips and its gills, or at least of the bones on each side that cover them. This motion in the animal is, without doubt, analogous to our breathing ; but it is not air, but water, that the fish actually sucks in and sprouts out through the gills at every motion. The manner of its breathing is thus : the fish first takes in a quantity of water by the mouth, which is driven to the gills ; these close and keep the water so swallowed from returning by the mouth ; while the bony covering of the gills prevents it from going through them, until the animal has drawn the proper quantity of air from the body of water thus imprisoned : then the bony-covers open, and gives it a free passage : by which means also the gills again are opened, and admit a fresh quantity of water. Should the fish be prevented from the free play of its gills, or should the bony-covers be kept from moving, by a string tied round them, the ani-

mal would soon fall into convulsions, and die in a few minutes.

But though this be the general method of explaining respiration in fishes, the difficulty remains to know what is done with this air, which the fish in this manner separates from the water. There seems no receptacle for containing it; the stomach being the chief cavity within the body, is too much filled with aliment for that purpose. There is indeed a cavity, and that a pretty large one, I mean the air-bladder or swim, which may serve to contain it for vital purposes; but that our philosophers have long destined to a very different use. The use universally assigned to the air-bladder, is the enabling the fish to rise or sink in the water at pleasure, as that is dilated or compressed. The use assigned by the ancients for it was to come in aid of the lungs, and to remain as a kind of store-house of air to supply the animal in its necessities. I own my attachment to this last opinion; but let us exhibit both with their proper share of evidence, and the reader must be left to determine.

The air-bladder is described as a bag filled with air, sometimes composed of one, sometimes of two, and sometimes of three divisions, situated towards the back of the fish, and opening into the maw or gullet. Those who contend that this bag is designed for raising or depressing the fish in the water, build upon the following experiment. A carp being put into the air-pump, and the air exhausted, the bladder is said to expand itself to such a degree, that the fish swells in an extraordinary manner, till the bladder bursts, and then the fish sinks, and ever after continues to crawl at the bottom. On another occasion, the air-bladder was pricked and wounded, which let out its air; upon which the fish sunk to the bottom, and was not seen to rise after. From thence it is inferred, that the use of the air-bladder must be by swelling, at the will of the animal, thus to increase the surface of the fish's body, and thence diminishing its specific gravity, to enable it to rise to the top of the water, and keep there at pleasure. On the contrary, when the fish wants to descend, it is, say they, but to exhaust this bladder of its air; and the fish being thus rendered slimmer and heavier, consequently sinks to the bottom.

Such is the account given of the use of the air-bladder ; no part of which seems to me well supported. In the first place, though nothing is more certain than that a carp put into the air-pump will swell, yet so will a mouse or a frog ; and these we know to have no air-bladders. A carp will rise to the surface ; but so will all fish that want air, whether they have an air-bladder or not. The air-bladder is said to burst in the experiment ; but that I deny. The air-bladder is indeed found empty, but it has suffered no laceration, and may be distended by being blown into like any other bladder that is sound. The fish after the experiment, I grant, continues to creep at the bottom ; and so will all fish that are sick and wounded, which must be the case with this after such an operation. Thus these facts prove nothing, but that when the fish is killed in an air-pump the air-bladder is found exhausted, and that it will naturally and necessarily be ; for the drain of air by which the fish is supplied in the natural way will necessarily oblige it to make use of all its hidden stores ; and, as there is a communication between the gullet and the air-bladder, the air which the latter contains will thus be obviously drawn away. But still farther, how comes the air-bladder, according to their hypothesis, to swell under the experiment of the air-pump ? What is it that closes the aperture of that organ in such a manner as at last to burst it ? or what necessity has the fish for dilating it to that violent degree ? At most, it only wants to rise to the surface ; and that the fish can easily do without so great a distention of the air-bladder. Indeed it should rather seem that the more the air was wanted without, the less necessity there was for its being uselessly accumulated within ; and, to make the modern system consistent, the fish under the air-pump, instead of permitting its bladder to be burst, would readily give up its contents ; which, upon their supposition, all can do at pleasure.

But the truth is, the fish can neither increase nor diminish the quantity of air in its air-bladder at will, no more than we can that which is contained in our stomachs. The animal has no one muscle, much less a pair of muscles, for contracting or dilating this organ ; its aperture is from the gullet ; and what air is put into it must remain there till the necessities, and not the will, of the animal call it forth as a supply.

But, to put the matter past a doubt, many fish are furnished with an air-bladder, that continually crawl at the bottom ; such as the eel and the flounder ; and many more are entirely without any bladder, that swim at ease in every depth ; such as the anchovy and fresh-water gudgeon.* Indeed, the number of fish that want this organ is alone a sufficient proof that it is not so necessary for the purposes of swimming ; and as the ventral fins, which in all fish lie flat upon the water, seem fully sufficient to keep them at all depths, I see no great occasion for this internal philosophical apparatus for raising and depressing them. Upon the whole, the air-bladder seems adapted for different purposes than that of keeping the fish at different depths in the water ; but whether it be to supply them with water when it is wanted from without, or for what other purpose, I will not take upon me to determine.

Hitherto we have seen fish in every respect inferior to land animals ; in the simplicity of their conformation, in their senses, and their enjoyments ; but of that humble existence which they have been granted by nature, they have a longer term than any other class of animated nature. “ Most of the disorders incident to mankind,” says Bacon, “ arise from the changes and alterations of the atmosphere ; but fishes reside in an element little subject to change ; theirs is an uniform existence ; their movements are without effort, and their life without labour. Their bones also, which are united by cartilages, admit of indefinite extension ; and the different sizes of animals of the same kind, among fishes, is very various. They still keep growing ; their bodies, instead of suffering the rigidity of age, which is the cause of natural decay in land animals, still continue increasing with fresh supplies ; and as the body grows, the conduits of life furnish their stores in greater abundance. How long a fish, that seems to have scarcely any bounds put to its growth, continues to live, is not ascertained ; perhaps the life of a man would not be long enough to measure that of the smallest.”

There have been two methods devised for determining the age of fishes, which are more ingenious than certain ; the one is by the circles of the scales, the other by the transverse section of the back-bone. The first method is this : When a fish's scale is examined through a microscope, it

will be found to consist of a number of circles, one circle within another, in some measure resembling those which appear upon the transverse section of a tree, and supposed to offer the same information. For as in trees we can tell their age by the number of their circles, so in fishes we can tell theirs by the number of circles in every scale, reckoning one ring for every year of the animal's existence. By this method, Mr. Buffon found a carp, whose scales he examined, to be not less than a hundred years old; a thing almost incredible, had we not several accounts in other authors which tend to confirm the discovery. Gesner brings us an instance of one of the same age; and Albertus of one more than double that period.

The age of the skate and the ray, that want scales, may be known by the other method; which is, by separating the joints of the back-bone, and then minutely observing the number of rings, which the surface where it has joined exhibits. By this the fish's age is said to be known; and perhaps with as much certainty as in the former instance.

But how unsatisfactory soever these marks may be, we have no reason to doubt the great age of some fishes. Those that have ponds, often know the oldest by their superior size. But the longevity of these animals is nothing when compared to their fecundity. All sorts, a few of the larger ones excepted, multiply their kind, some by hundreds, and some by millions. There are some that bring forth their young alive, and some that only produce eggs: the former are rather the least fruitful; yet even these are seen to produce in great abundance. The viviparous blenny, for instance, brings forth two or three hundred at a time, all alive and playing round the parent together. Those who exclude their progeny in a more imperfect state, and produce eggs, which they are obliged to leave to chance, either on the bottom, at the edge of the water, or floating on the surface where it is deeper, are all much more prolific; and seem to proportion their stock to the danger there is of its consumption. Of these eggs thus deposited, scarcely one in an hundred brings forth an animal; they are devoured by all the lesser fry that frequent the shores; by aquatic birds near the margin; and by the larger fish in deep water. Still, however, there are enough for supplying the deep with inhabitants; and, notwithstanding their own rapacity, and that of the fowls of various tribes, the numbers that escape are sufficient to

relieve the wants of a very considerable part of mankind. Indeed, when we consider the numbers that a single fish is capable of producing, the amount will seem astonishing. If, for instance, we should be told of a being so very prolific, that in a single season it could bring forth as many of its kind as there are inhabitants in England, it would strike us with surprise; yet a single cod produces full that number. The cod spawns in one season, as L wenhoeck assures us, above nine million of eggs or peas, contained in one single roe. The flounder is commonly known to produce above one million; and the mackarel above five hundred thousand. Such an amazing increase, if permitted to come to maturity, would overstock Nature, and even the ocean itself would not be able to contain, much less to provide for, the half of its inhabitants. But two wise purposes are answered by this amazing increase; it preserves the species in the midst of numberless enemies, and serves to furnish the rest with a sustenance adapted to their nature.

Fishes seem, all except the whale kind, entirely divested of those parental solitudes which so strongly mark the manners of the more perfect terrestrial animals. How far they copulate remains as yet a doubt; for though they seem to join, yet the male is not furnished with any external instrument of generation. It is said, by some, that his only end in that action is to emit his impregnating milt upon the eggs that at that time fall from the female. He is said to be seen pursuing them as they float down the stream, and carefully impregnating them one after another. On some occasions also the females dig holes in the bottom of rivers and ponds, and there deposit their spawn, which is impregnated by the male in the same manner. All this, however, is very doubtful; what we know with certainty of the matter, and that not discovered till very lately, is, that the male has two organs of generation that open into the bladder of urine, and that these organs do not open into the rectum as in birds, but have a particular aperture of their own.* These organs of generation in the male are empty at some seasons of the year; but before the time of spawning they are turgid with what is called the milt, and emit the fluid proper for impregnation.

Fish have different seasons for depositing their spawn:

* Vide Gaman de Generatione Piscium.

some, that live in the depths of the ocean, are said to choose the winter months ; but, in general, those with which we are acquainted, choose the hottest months in summer, and prefer such water as is somewhat tepidified by the beams of the sun. They then leave the deepest parts of the ocean, which are the coldest, and shoal round the coasts, or swim up the fresh-water rivers, which are warm as they are comparatively shallow. When they have deposited their burdens they then return to their old stations, and leave their nascent progeny to shift for themselves.

The spawn continues in its egg-state in some fish longer than in others, and this in proportion to the animal's size. In the salmon, for instance, the young animal continues in the egg from the beginning of December till the beginning of April ; the carp continues in the egg not above three weeks ; the little gold fish from China is produced still quicker. These all, when excluded, at first escape by their minuteness and agility. They rise, sink, and turn, much readier than grown fish ; and they can escape into very shallow waters when pursued. But, with all their advantages, scarcely one in a thousand survives the numerous perils of its youth. The very male and female that have given them birth are equally dangerous and formidable with the rest, forgetting all relation at their departure.

Such is the general picture of these heedless and hungry creatures : but there are some in this class, living in the waters, that are possessed of finer organs and higher sensations ; that have all the tenderness of birds or quadrupeds for their young ; that nurse them with constant care, and protect them from every injury. Of this class are the *Cetaceous* tribe, or the fishes of the whale kind. There are others, though not capable of nursing their young, yet that bring them alive into the world, and defend them with courage and activity. These are the *Cartilaginous* kinds, or those who have gristles instead of bones. But the fierce unmindful tribe we have been describing, that leave their spawn without any protection, are called the *Spinous*, or bony kinds, from their bones resembling the sharpness of thorns.

Thus there are three grand divisions in the fish kind ; the *cetaceous*, the *cartilaginous*, and the *spinous* ; all differing from each other, in their conformation, their appetites, in their bringing forth, and in the education of their young.

These three great distinctions are not the capricious differences formed by a maker of systems, but are strongly and firmly marked in Nature. These are the distinctions of Aristotle; and they have been adopted by mankind ever since his time. It will be necessary, therefore, to give the history of each of these in particular; and then to range, under each head, those fishes whose history is the most remarkable; or, more properly speaking, those of which we have any history. For we shall find, when we come to any of the species in particular, how little can be said of their habits, their stations, or method of propagation.

Much, indeed, can be said of them if considered relatively to man; and large books have been written of the manner of taking fish, or of dressing them. Apicius is noted for having first taught mankind to suffocate fish in Carthaginian pickle; and Quin, for giving a sauce to the Johndory: Mrs. Glasse is famous for her eel-pie, and Mr. Tull for his invention of spaying carp, to give it a finer flavour. In this manner our cooks handle the subject. On the other hand, our physicians assure us that the flesh of fishes yields little nourishment, and soon corrupts; that it abounds in a gross sort of oil and water, and hath but a few volatile particles, which render it less fit to be converted into the substance of our bodies. They are cold and moist, and must needs, say they, produce juices of the same kind, and consequently are improper to strengthen the body. In this diversity of opinion, it is the wisest way to eat our fish in the ordinary manner, and pay no great attention to cooks or doctors.

I cannot conclude this chapter without putting a question to the learned, which I confess I am not able to resolve. How comes it that fish, which are bred in a salt element, have yet no salt to the taste, or that is capable of being extracted from them?*

* Though fishes live in a salt element they do not subsist on it. All the water they take into their mouths is again discharged through the gills, after retaining the air contained in it for the purposes of life. The medium of water answers the precise purpose to fishes; that the medium of air does to man and other land animals. In inspiration, the element is received into the lungs or gills, and in expiration is returned deprived of its purer parts, which are retained for the purpose of animal economy. And whatever salt may be taken into the stomachs of fishes with their food, is decomposed and separated into its component parts of acid and soda. The sailor that feeds for twelve months together on salted meats,

CHAP. II.

OF CETACEOUS FISHES IN GENERAL.

As on land there are some orders of animals that seem formed to command the rest, with greater powers and more various instincts, so in the ocean there are fishes which seem formed upon a nobler plan than others, and that, to their fishy form, join the appetites and the conformation of quadrupeds. These are all of the *cetaceous* kind; and so much raised above their fellows of the deep, in their appetites and instincts, that almost all our modern naturalists have fairly excluded them from the finny tribes, and will have them called, not fishes, but *great beasts of the ocean*. With them it would be as improper to say men go to Greenland fishing for whale, as it would be to say that a sportsman goes to Blackwall a fowling for mackarel.

Yet, notwithstanding philosophers, mankind will always have their own way of talking; and, for my own part, I think them here in the right. A different formation of the lungs, stomach, and intestines; a different manner of breathing or propagating; are not sufficient to counterbalance the great obvious analogy which these animals bear to the whole finny tribe. They are shaped as other fishes; they swim with fins; they are entirely naked, without hair; they live in the water, though they come up to breathe; they are only seen in the depths of the ocean, and never come upon shore but when forced thither. These, sure, are sufficient to plead in favour of the general denomination, and acquit mankind of error in ranking them with their lower companions of the deep.

But still they are many degrees raised above other fishes in their nature, as they are in general in their size. This tribe is composed of the Whale and its varieties, of the Cachalot, the Dolphin, the Grampus, and the Porpoise. All has not his own flesh made salt; but a decomposition taking place during the process of digestion, he becomes corrupted and scorbutic by the excess of soda and magnesia.

these resemble quadrupeds in their internal structure, and in some of their appetites and affections. Like quadrupeds, they have lungs, a midriff, a stomach, intestines, liver, spleen, bladder, and parts of generation; their heart also resembles that of quadrupeds, with its partitions closed up as in them, and driving red and warm blood in circulation through the body. In short, every internal part bears a most striking similitude; and to keep these parts warm, the whole kind are also covered, between the skin and the muscles, with a thick coat of fat or blubber, which, like the bacon-fat of a hog, keeps out the cold, renders their muscles glib and pliant, and probably makes them lighter in swimming.

As these animals breathe the air, it is obvious that they cannot bear to be any long time under water. They are constrained, therefore, every two or three minutes, to come up to the surface to take breath, as well as to spout out through their nostril (for they have but one) that water which they sucked in while gaping for their prey. This conduit, by which they breathe, and also throw out the water, is placed in the head, a little before the brain. Though externally the hole is but single, it is internally divided by a bony partition, which is closed by a sphincter muscle on the inside, that, like the mouth of a purse, shuts it up at the pleasure of the animal. There is also another muscle or valve, which prevents the water from going down the gullet. When therefore, the animal takes in a certain quantity of water, which is necessary to be discharged and separated from its food, it shuts the mouth, closes the valve of the stomach, opens the sphincter that kept the nostril closed, and then breathing strongly from the lungs, pushes the water out by the effort, as we see it rise by the pressure of air in a fire-engine.

The senses of these animals seem also superior to those of other fishes. The eyes of other fishes, we have observed, are covered only with transparent skin that covers the rest of the head; but in all the cetaceous kinds, it is covered by eye-lids, as in man. This, no doubt, keeps that organ in a more perfect state, by giving it intervals of relaxation, in which all vision is suspended. The other fishes, that are for ever staring, must see, if for no other reason, more feebly, as their organs of sight are always exerted.

As for hearing, these also are furnished with the internal instruments of the ear, although the external orifice no where

appears. It is most probable that this orifice may open by some canal, resembling the Eustachian tube, into the mouth; but this has not as yet been discovered.

Yet Nature sure has not thus formed a complete apparatus for hearing, and denied the animal the use of it when formed. It is most likely that all animals of the cetaceous kind can hear, as they certainly utter sounds, and bellow to each other. This vocal power would be as needless to animals naturally deaf, as glasses to a man that was blind.

But it is in the circumstances in which they continue their kind, that these animals show an eminent superiority. Other fish deposit their spawn, and leave the success to accident; these never produce above one young, or two at the most; and this the female suckles entirely in the manner of quadrupeds, her breasts being placed, as in the human kind, above the navel. We have read many fabulous accounts of the nursing of the demigods of antiquity, of their feeding on the marrow of lions, and their being suckled by wolves: one might imagine a still more heroic system of nutrition; if we supposed that the young hero was suckled and grew strong upon the breast-milk of a she-whale!

The whale or the grampus are terrible at any time; but are fierce and desperate in the defence of their young. In Waller's beautiful poem of the Summer Islands, we have a story, founded upon fact, which shews the maternal tenderness of these animals for their offspring. A whale and her cub had got in an arm of the sea, where, by the desertion of the tide, they were enclosed on every side. The people from shore soon saw their situation, and drove down upon them in boats, with such weapons as the urgent occasion offered. The two animals were soon wounded in several places, and the whole sea round was tingured with their blood. The whales made several attempts to escape; and at last the old one, by its superior strength, forced over the shallow into the depths of the ocean. But though in safety herself, she could not bear the danger that awaited her young one; she therefore rushed in once more where the smaller animal was imprisoned, and resolved, when she could not protect, at least to share its danger.—The story ends with poetical justice; for the tide coming in, brought off both in safety from their enemies, though not without sustaining an infinite number of wounds in every part.

As to the rest, the distinctive marks of this tribe are, that the number of their fins never exceed three; namely, two pectoral fins, and one back fin; but in some sorts the last is wanting. These fins differ very much from those of other fishes, which are formed of straight splines: the fins of the cetaceous tribe are made up of bones and muscles; and the skeleton of one of their fins, very much resembles the skeleton of a man's hand. Their tails also are different from those of all other fish: they are placed so as to lie flat on the surface of the water; while the other kinds have them, as we every day see, upright or edgeways. This flat position of the tail in cetaceous animals, enables them to force themselves suddenly to the surface of the water to breathe, which they are continually constrained to do.

Of these enormous animals some are without teeth, and properly called whales: others have the teeth only in the lower jaw, and are called, by the French, cachalots: the narwhal has teeth only in the upper jaw: the dolphin's teeth, as well as those of the porpoise and grampus, are both above and below. These are the marks that serve to distinguish the kinds of this enormous tribe from each other; and these shall serve to guide us in giving their history.

CHAP. III.

OF THE WHALE PROPERLY SO CALLED, AND ITS VARIETIES.

IF we compare land animals, in respect to magnitude, with those of the deep, they will appear contemptible in the competition. It is probable, indeed, that quadrupeds once existed much larger than we find them at present. From the skeletons of some that have been dug up at different times, it is evident that there must have been terrestrial animals twice as large as the elephant; but creatures of such an immense bulk required a proportionable extent of ground for subsistence, and, by being rivals with men for large territory, they must have been destroyed in the contest.

mass along; and it is surprising to see with what force and celerity its enormous bulk cuts through the ocean. The fins are only made use of for turning in the water, and giving a direction to the velocity impressed by the tail. The female also makes use of them when pursued, to bear off her young, clapping them on her back, and supporting them by the fins on each side from falling.

The outward or skarf skin of the whale is no thicker than parchment; but this removed, the real skin appears, of about an inch thick, and covering the fat or blubber that lies beneath; this is from eight to twelve inches in thickness; and is, when the fish is in health, of a beautiful yellow. The muscles lie beneath; and these, like the flesh of quadrupeds, are very red and tough.

The cleft of the mouth is above twenty feet long, which is near one-third of the animal's whole length; and the upper jaw is furnished with barbs, that lie like the pipes of an organ, the greatest in the middle, and the smallest to the sides. These compose the whalebone; the longest spars of which are found to be not less than eighteen feet; the shortest, being of no value, are thrown away. The tongue is almost immoveably fixed to the lower jaw, seeming one great lump of fat; and, in fact, it fills several hogsheads with blubber. The eyes are not larger than those of an ox; and when the crystalline humour is dried, it does not appear larger than a pea. They are placed towards the back of the head, being the most convenient situation for enabling them to see both before and behind; as also to see over them, where their food is principally found. They are guarded by eye-lids and eye-lashes, as in quadrupeds; and they seem to be very sharp-sighted.

Nor is their sense of hearing in less perfection; for they are warned at great distances, of any danger preparing against them. It would seem as if nature had designedly given them these advantages, as they multiply little, in order to continue their kind. It is true, indeed, that the external organ of hearing is not perceptible, for this might only embarrass them in their natural element: but as soon as the thin scarf-skin above mentioned is removed, a black spot is discovered behind the eye, and under that is the auditory canal, that leads to a regular apparatus for hearing. In short, the animal hears the smallest sounds at very

great distances, and at all times, except when it is spouting water; which is the time that the fishers approach to strike it.

These spout-holes or nostrils, in all the cetaceous tribe, have been already described: in this whale there are two, one on each side the head before the eyes, and crooked, somewhat like the holes on the belly of a violin. From these holes this animal blows the water very fiercely, and with such a noise, that it roars like a hollow wind, and may be heard at three miles distance. When wounded, it then blows more fiercely than ever, so that it sounds like the roaring of the sea in a great storm.

We have already observed, that the substance called whalebone, is taken from the upper jaw of the animal, and is very different from the real bones of the whale. The real bones are hard, like those of great land animals, are very porous, and filled with marrow. Two great strong bones sustain the upper lip, lying against each other in the shape of a half-moon: some of these are twenty feet long; they are seen in several gardens set up against each other, and are usually mistaken for the ribs of this animal.

Such is the general conformation and figure of this great inhabitant of the deep, the precise anatomy of which has not been yet ascertained. In those places where they are caught in greatest abundance, the sailors are not very curious as to the structure of the viscera; and few anatomists care to undertake a task where the operator, instead of separating with a lancet, must cut his way with an axe. It is as yet doubted, therefore, whether the whale, that in most points internally resembles a quadruped, may not have one great bowel fitted entirely for the reception of air, to supply it, when constrained to keep longer than usual at the bottom. The sailors universally affirm that it has; and philosophers have nothing but the analogy of its parts to oppose to their general assertions.

As these animals resemble quadrupeds in conformation, so they bear a strong resemblance in some of their appetites and manners. The female joins with the male, as is asserted, *more humano*, and once in two years feels the accesses of desire.

Their fidelity to each other exceeds whatever we are told

of even the constancy of birds! Some fishers, as Anderson informs us, having struck one of two whales, a male and a female, that were in company together, the wounded fish made a long and terrible resistance: it struck down a boat with three men in it, with a single blow of the tail, by which all went to the bottom. The other still attended its companion, and lent it every assistance; till, at last, the fish that was struck sunk under the number of its wounds; while its faithful associate, disdaining to survive the loss, with great bellowing, stretched itself upon the dead fish, and shared its fate.

The whale goes with young nine or ten months, and is then fatter than usual, particularly when near the time of bringing forth. It is said that the embryo, when first perceptible, is about seventeen inches long, and white; but the cub, when excluded, is black, and about ten feet long. She generally produces one young one, and never above two. When she suckles her young, she throws herself on one side on the surface of the sea, and the young one attaches itself to the teat. The breasts are two, generally hid within the belly; but she can produce them at pleasure, so as to stand forward a foot and a half, or two feet; and the teats are like those of a cow. In some, the breasts are white; in others, speckled; in all, filled with a large quantity of milk, resembling that of land animals. Nothing can exceed the tenderness of the female for her offspring; she carries it with her wherever she goes, and when hardest pursued, keeps it supported between her fins. Even when wounded, she still clasps her young one; and when she plunges to avoid danger, takes it to the bottom; but rises sooner than usual, to give it breath again.

The young ones continue at the breast for a year; during which time they are called by the sailors, *short-heads*. They are then extremely fat, and yield above fifty barrels of blubber. The mother, at the same time, is equally lean and emaciated. At the age of two years they are called *stunts*, as they do not thrive much immediately after quitting the breast; they then scarcely yield above twenty, or twenty-four, barrels of blubber: from that forward, they are called *skull-fish*, and their age is wholly unknown.

Every species of whale propagates only with those of its

own kind, and does not at all mingle with the rest; however, they are generally seen in shoals, of different kinds together, and make their migrations in large companies, from one ocean to another. They are a gregarious animal, which implies their want of mutual defence against the invasions of smaller, but more powerful, fishes. It seems astonishing, therefore, how a shoal of these enormous animals find subsistence together, when it would seem that the supplying even one with food would require greater plenty than the ocean could furnish. To increase our wonder, we not only see them herding together, but usually find them fatter than any other animals of whatsoever element. We likewise know that they cannot swallow large fishes, as their throat is so narrow, that an animal larger than an herring could not enter. How then do they subsist and grow so fat?—A small insect, which is seen floating in those seas, and which Linnæus terms the *Medusa*, is sufficient for this supply. These insects are black, and of the size of a small bean, and are sometimes seen floating in clusters on the surface of the water. They are of a round form, like snails in a box, but they have wings, which are so tender, that it is scarcely possible to touch them without breaking. These serve rather for swimming than flying; and the little animal is called by the Icelanders, the *Walfischoas*, which signifies the whale's provender. They have the taste of raw mussels, and have the smell of burnt sugar. These are the food of the whale, which it is seen to draw up in great numbers with its huge jaws, and to bruise between its barbs, which are always found with several of these sticking among them.

This is the simple food of the great Greenland whale; it pursues no other animal, leads an inoffensive life in its element, and is harmless in proportion to its strength to do mischief. There seems to be an analogy between its manners and those of the elephant. They are both the strongest and the largest animals in their respective elements; neither offer injury, but are terrible when provoked to resentment. The fin-fish indeed, in some measure, differs from the great whale in this particular, as it subsists chiefly upon herrings, great shoals of which it is often seen driving before it. Yet even the swallow of this fish is not very large, if compared to the cachalot tribe; and its ravages are but sports in com-

parison. The stomach and intestines of all these animals, when opened, seldom have any thing in them, except a soft unctuous substance of a brownish colour; and their excrements are of a shining red.

As the whale is an inoffensive animal, it is not to be wondered that it has many enemies willing to take advantage of its disposition, and inaptitude for combat. There is a small animal, of the shell-fish kind, called the *Whale-louse*, that sticks to its body, as we see shells sticking to the foul bottom of a ship. This insinuates itself chiefly under the fins; and whatever efforts the great animal makes, it still keeps its hold, and lives upon the fat, which it is provided with instruments to arrive at.

The sword-fish, however, is the whale's most terrible enemy. "At the sight of this little animal," says Anderson, "the whale seems agitated in an extraordinary manner; leaping from the water as if with affright: wherever it appears, the whale perceives it at a distance, and flies from it in the opposite direction. I have been myself," continues he, "a spectator of their terrible encounter. The whale has no instrument of defence except the tail; with that it endeavours to strike the enemy; and a single blow taking place, would effectually destroy its adversary: but the sword-fish is as active as the other is strong, and easily avoids the stroke; then bounding into the air, it falls upon its great subjacent enemy, and endeavours not to pierce with its pointed beak, but to cut it with its toothed edges. The sea all about is seen dyed with blood, proceeding from the wounds of the whale; while the enormous animal vainly endeavours to reach its invader, and strikes with its tail against the surface of the water, making a report at each blow louder than the noise of a cannon."

There is still another and more powerful enemy, called by the fishermen of New-England, *the Killer*. This is itself a cetaceous animal, armed with strong and powerful teeth. A number of these are said to surround the whale, in the same manner as dogs get round a bull. Some attack it with their teeth behind; others attempt it before, until at last the great animal is torn down, and its tongue is said to be the only part they devour when they have made it their prey. They are said to be of such great strength, that one of them

alone, was known to stop a dead whale that several boats were towing along, and drag it from among them to the bottom.

But of all the enemies of these enormous fishes, man is the greatest: he alone destroys more in a year than the rest in an age, and actually has thinned their numbers in that part of the world where they are chiefly sought. The great resort of these animals was found to be on the inhospitable shores of Spitzbergen; where the distance of the voyage, the coldness of the climate, the terrors of the icy sea, and, still more, their own formidable bulk, might have been expected to protect them from human injury. But all these were but slight barriers against man's arts, his courage, and his necessities. The European ships, soon after the improvement of navigation, found the way into those seas; and as early as the beginning of the fourteenth century, the Biscayneers were in possession of a very considerable trade to the coast of Greenland. The Dutch and the English followed them thither; and soon took that branch of commerce out of their hands. The English commenced the business about the beginning of the seventeenth century; and the town of Hull had the honour of first attempting that profitable branch of trade. But, at present, it seems upon the decline, as the quantity of fish are so greatly reduced, by the constant capture for such a vast length of time. It is now said that the fishers, from a defect of whales, apply themselves to the seal-fishery; yet, as these animals are extremely timorous, they will soon be induced to quit those shores, where they meet such frequent disturbance and danger. The poor natives of Greenland themselves, who used to feed upon the whale, are diminishing, in proportion as their sustenance is removed; and it is probable that the revolution of a few years will see that extensive coast totally deserted by its inhabitants, as it is already nearly deserted by the whales.

The art of taking whales, like most others, is much improved by time, and differs in many respects from that practised by the Biscayneers, when they first frequented the icy sea. But as the description of their method is the least complicated, and consequently the easiest understood, it will be best suited to our purpose.

For this navigation, the Biscayneers, in favourable sea-

sons, fitted out thirty ships, of two hundred and fifty tons each, with fifty choice men apiece, and a few boys. These were stored with six months' provision; and each ship had its boats, which were to be serviceable when come to the place of duty. When arrived at the part where the whales are expected to pass to the southward, they always keep their sails set, and a sailor is placed at the mast-head, to give information when he spies a whale. As soon as he discovers one, the whole crew are instantly in employment: they fit out their boats, and row away to where the whale was seen. The harpooner, who is to strike the fish, stands at the prow of the boat, with an harpoon or javelin in his hand, five or six feet long, pointed with steel like the barb of an arrow, of a triangular shape. As this person's place is that of the greatest dexterity, so also it is of the greatest danger: the whale sometimes overturns the boat with a blow of its tail; or drives against it with fury. In general, however, the animal seems to sleep on the surface of the water: while the boat is approaching, the harpooner stands aloft, and with his harpoon tied to a cord of several hundred fathom length, darts it into the animal, and then rows as fast as possible away. It is some time before the whale seems to feel the blow; the instrument has usually pierced no deeper than the fat, and that being insensible, the animal continues for a while motionless; but soon roused from its seeming lethargy, as the shaft continues to pierce deeper and deeper into the muscular flesh, it flies off with amazing rapidity. In the mean time, the harpoon sticks in its side, while the rope, which is coiled up in the boat, and runs upon a swivel, lengthens as the whale recedes, but still shews the part of the deep to which it has retreated. The cord is coiled up with great care; for such is the rapidity with which it runs off, that if it was but the least checked, as it yields with the animal's retreat, it would infallibly upset the boat, and the crew would go to the bottom. It sometimes happens also, that the rapidity with which it runs over the swivel at the edge of the boat, heats it, and it would infallibly take fire, did not a man stand continually with a wet mop in his hand, to cool the swivel as the cord runs. The whale having dived to a considerable depth, remains at the bottom, sometimes for near half an hour, with the harpoon in its body, and then

risers to take breath, expecting the danger over; but the instant it appears, they are all with their boats ready to receive it, and fling the harpoons into its body; the animal again dives and again rises, while they repeat their blows. The ship follows in full sail, like all the rest, never losing sight of the boats, and ready to lend them assistance; the whole ocean seems dyed in blood. Thus they renew their attacks, till the whale begins to be quite enfeebled and spent, when they plunge their longer spears into various parts of its body, and the enormous animal expires. When it is dead, to prevent it from sinking, they tie it with a strong iron chain to the side of the boat, and either cut it up in pieces, and carry it home in that manner, or extract the oil from the blubber on ship-board.

Such is the manner in which these fish were taken in the beginning; but succeeding arts have improved the method, and the harpoon is now thrown by a machine being used which inflicts a deeper wound, and strikes the animal with much greater certainty: there are better methods for extracting the oil, and proper machines for cutting the animal up, than were used in the early fisheries. But as an account of this belongs to the history of art, and not of nature, we must be contented with observing, that several parts of this animal, and all but the intestines and the bones, are turned to a very good account; not only the oil, but the greaves from which it is separated. The barbs also were an article of great profit; but have sunk in their price, since women no longer use them to swell out their petticoats with whale-bone. The flesh of this animal is also a dainty to some nations, and even the French seamen are now and then found to dress and use it as their ordinary diet at sea. It is said, by the English and Dutch sailors, to be hard and ill-tasted; but the French assert the contrary; and the savages of Greenland, as well as those near the south pole, are fond of it to distraction. They eat the flesh, and drink the oil, which is a first-rate delicacy. The finding a dead whale is an adventure considered among the fortunate circumstances of their wretched lives. They make their abode beside it; and seldom remove till they have left nothing but the bones.

Jacobson, whom we quoted before in the History of Birds, where he described his countrymen of the island of

Feroe as living a part of the year upon salted gulls, tells us also, that they are very fond of salted whale's flesh. The fat of the head they season with bay salt, and then hang it up to dry in the chimney. He thinks it tastes as well as fat bacon; and the lean, which they boil, is, in his opinion, not inferior to beef. I fancy poor Jacobson would make but an indifferent taster at one of our city feasts!

CHAP. IV.

OF THE NARWHAL.

FROM whales that entirely want teeth, we come to such as have them in the upper jaw only; and in this class there is found but one, the Narwhal, or Sea-unicorn. This fish is not so large as the whale, not being above sixty feet long. Its body is slenderer than that of the whale, and its fat not in so great abundance. But this great animal is sufficiently distinguished from all others of the deep by its tooth or teeth, which stand pointing directly forward from the upper jaw, and are from nine to fourteen feet long. In all the variety of weapons with which Nature has armed her various tribes, there is not one so large or so formidable as this. This terrible weapon is generally found single, and some are of opinion that the animal is furnished but with one by nature; but there is at present the skull of a narwhal at the Stadthouse at Amsterdam, with two teeth; which plainly proves that in some animals, at least, this instrument is double. It is even a doubt whether it may not be so in all; and that the narwhal's wanting a tooth is only an accident which it has met with in the encounters it is obliged daily to be engaged in. Yet it must be owned, of those that are taken only with one tooth, there seems no socket, nor no remains of any other upon the opposite side of the jaw, but all is plain and even. However this be, the tooth, or, as some are pleased to call it, the horn of the narwhal, is the most terrible of all natural instruments of destruction. It is as straight as an arrow, about the thickness of the small of a man's leg, wreathed in the manner we

sometimes see twisted bars of iron; it tapers to a sharp point; and is whiter, heavier, and harder, than ivory. It is generally seen to spring from the left side of the head directly forward in a straight line with the body; and its root enters into the socket above a foot and a half. In a skull to be seen at Hamburgh there are two teeth, which are each above seven feet long, and are eight inches in circumference. When the animal, possessed of these formidable weapons, is urged to employ them, it drives directly forward against the enemy with its teeth, that, like protended spears, pierce whatever stands before them.

The extreme length of these instruments have induced some to consider them rather as horns than teeth; but they in every respect resemble the tusks of the boar and the elephant. They grow, as in them, from sockets in the upper jaw; they have the solidity of the hardest bone, and far surpass ivory in all its qualities. The same error has led others to suppose, that as among quadrupeds the female was often found without horns, so these instruments of defence were only to be found in the male: but this has been more than once refuted by actual experience; both sexes are found armed in this manner; the horn is sometimes found wreathed, and sometimes smooth; sometimes a little bent, and sometimes straight; but always strong, deeply fixed, and sharply pointed.

Yet, notwithstanding all these appointments for combat, these long and pointed tusks, amazing strength, and unmatchable celerity, the narwhal is one of the most harmless and peaceful inhabitants of the ocean. It is seen constantly and inoffensively sporting among the other great monsters of the deep, no way attempting to injure them, but pleased in their company. The Greenlanders call the narwhal the forerunner of the whale; for wherever it is seen, the whale is shortly after sure to follow. This may arise as well from the natural passion for society in these animals, as from both living upon the same food, which are the insects described in the preceding chapter. These powerful fishes make war upon no other living creature; and though furnished with instruments to spread general destruction, are as innocent and as peaceful as a drove of oxen. Nay, so regardless are they

of their own weapons, and so utterly unmindful to keep them in repair for engagement, that they are constantly seen covered over with weeds, slough, and all the filth of the sea; they seem rather considered as an impediment than a defence.

The manners and appetites both of the narwhal and the great whale are entirely similar; they both alike want teeth for chewing; and are obliged to live upon insects; they both are peaceable and harmless, and always rather fly than seek the combat. The narwhal, however, has a much narrower gape than the great whale, and, therefore, does not want the use of barbs to keep in its food when once sucked into the mouth. It is also much swifter, and would never be taken by the fishermen but for those very tusks which at first appear to be its principal defence. These animals, as was said, being fond of living together, are always seen in herds of several at a time; and whenever they are attacked they crowd together in such a manner, that they are mutually embarrassed by their tusks. By these they are often locked together, and are prevented from sinking to the bottom. It seldom happens, therefore, but the fishermen make sure of one or two of the hindmost, which very well reward their trouble.

It is from the extraordinary circumstance of the teeth, therefore, that this fish demands a distinct history; and such has been the curiosity of mankind, and their desire to procure them, that a century ago they were considered as the greatest rarity in the world. At that time the art of catching whales was not known; and mankind saw few, except such as were stranded on the coasts by accident. The tooth of the narwhal, therefore, was ascribed to a very different animal from that which really bore it. Among other fossil substances, they were sometimes dug up; and the narwhal being utterly unknown, naturalists soon found a terrestrial owner. They were thought to be the horns of unicorns, an animal described by Pliny as resembling a horse, and with one straight horn darting forward from the middle of its forehead. These teeth were, therefore, considered as a strong testimony in favour of that historian's veracity, and were shewn among the most precious remains of antiquity. Even for some time after the narwhal was known, the deceit was continued, as those who were possessed

of a tooth sold it to great advantage. But at present they are too well known to deceive any, and are only shewn for what they really are; their curiosity increasing in proportion to their weight and their size.*

CHAP. V.

OF THE CACHALOT, AND ITS VARIETIES.

THE Cachalot which has generally gone under the name of the spermaceti-whale, till Mr. Pennant very properly made the distinction, by borrowing its name from the French, has several teeth in the under-jaw, but none in the upper. As there are no less than seven distinctions among whales, so also there are the same number of distinctions in the tribe we are describing. The cachalot with two fins and a black back; the cachalot with two fins and a whitish back; that with a spout in the neck; that with a spout in the snout; that with three fins and sharp-pointed teeth; that with three fins and sharp-edged teeth; and, lastly, the cachalot, with three fins and flatted teeth.

This tribe is not of such enormous size as the whale, properly so called, not being above sixty feet long, and sixteen feet high. In consequence of their being more slender, they are much more active than the common whale; they remain a longer time at the bottom; and afford a smaller quantity of oil. As in the common whale the head was seen to make a third part of its bulk, so in this species the head is so large as to make one half of the whole. The tongue of this animal is small, but the throat is very formidable; and with very great ease it could swallow an ox. In the stomach of the whale scarcely any thing is to be found; but in that of the cachalot there are loads of fish of different kinds; some whole, some half digested, some small, and others eight or nine feet long. The cachalot is, therefore, as destructive among lesser fishes, as the whale is harmless; and can at one gulp swallow a shoal of fishes

* A species is mentioned by Fabricius, as being found on the shores of Greenland; much smaller, of a black colour, with two obtuse teeth from the upper-jaw, a little curved at the tips; very weak; and measuring not above an inch in length: it has likewise a small fin on the back, which is wanting in the common Narwhal.

down its enormous gullet.—Linnæus tells us that this fish pursues and terrifies the dolphins and porpoises so much, as often to drive them on shore.

But, how formidable soever this fish may be to its fellows of the deep, it is by far the most valuable, and the most sought after by man, as it contains two very precious drugs, spermaceti and ambergris. The use of these, either for the purposes of luxury or medicine, is so universal, that the capture of this animal, that alone supplies them, turns out to very great advantage, particularly since the art has been found out of converting all the oil of this animal, as well as the brain, into that substance called spermaceti.

This substance, as it is naturally formed, is found in the head of the animal, and is no other than the brain. The outward skin of the head being taken off, a covering of fat offers about three inches thick; and under that, instead of a bony skull, the animal has only another thick skin that serves for a covering and defence of the brain. The first cavity or chamber of the brain, is filled with that spermaceti which is supposed of the greatest purity and highest value. From this cavity there is generally drawn about seven barrels of the clearest spermaceti, that thrown upon water coagulates like cheese. Below this there is another chamber just over the gullet, which is about seven feet high; and this also contains the drug, but of less value. It is distributed in this cavity like honey in a hive, in small cells, separated from each other by a membrane like the inner skin of an egg. In proportion as the oily substance is drawn away from this part, it fills anew from every part of the body; and from this is generally obtained about nine barrels of oil. Besides this, the spinal-marrow, which is as thick as a man's thigh, and reaches all along the back-bone to the tail, where it is not thicker than one's finger, affords no inconsiderable quantity.*

This substance, which is used in the composition of many medicines, rather to give them consistence than efficacy, was at first sold at a very high price, both from the many

* The perfume called Ambergris, is found in large masses in the intestines, and is now known to be nothing more than the excrements of the animal. Spermaceti is found in a vast cavity in the upper part of the head, while fresh, and in its natural receptacle, it is nearly fluid; but it concretes into opaque masses soon after it is exposed to the air.

virtues ascribed to it, and the small quantity that the cachalot was capable of supplying: at present, the price is greatly fallen; first, because its efficacy in medicine is found to be very small; and again, because the whole oil of the fish is easily convertible into spermaceti. This is performed by boiling it with a ley of pot-ash, and hardening it in the manner of soap. Candles are now made of it, which are substituted for wax, and sold much cheaper; so that we need not fear having our spermaceti adulterated in the manner some medical books caution us to beware of; for they carefully guard us against having our spermaceti adulterated with virgin wax.

As to the ambergris, which is sometimes found in this whale, it was long considered as a substance found floating on the surface of the sea; but time, that reveals the secrets of the mercenary, has discovered that it chiefly belongs to this animal. The name, which has been improperly given to the former substance, seems more justly to belong to this; for the ambergris is found in the place where the seminal vessels are usually situated in other animals. It is found in a bag of three or four feet long, in round lumps from one to twenty pounds weight, floating in a fluid rather thinner than oil, and of a yellowish colour. There are never seen more than four at a time in one of these bags; and that which weighed twenty pounds, and which was the largest ever seen, was found single. These balls of ambergris are not found in all fishes of this kind, but chiefly in the oldest and strongest. The uses of this medicine for the purposes of luxury, and as a perfume, are well known; though upon some subjects ignorance is preferable to information.

CHAP. VI.

OF THE DOLPHIN, THE GRAMPUS, AND THE PORPOISE,

WITH THEIR VARIETIES.

ALL these fish have teeth both in the upper and the lower

jaw, and are much less than the whale. The Grampus,

which is the largest, never exceeds twenty feet. It may also

be distinguished by the flatness of its head, which resembles a boat turned upside down. The Porpoise resembles the

grampus in most things except the snout, which is not above eight feet long; its snout also more resembles that of a hog. The Dolphin has a strong resemblance to the porpoise, except that its snout is longer, and more pointed. They have all fins on the back; they all have heads very large, like the rest of the whale-kind; and resemble each other in their appetites, their manners, and conformations; being equally voracious, active, and roving.

The great agility of these animals prevents their often being taken. They seldom remain a moment above water; sometimes, indeed, their too eager pursuits expose them to danger; and a shoal of herrings often allures them out of their depth. In such a case, the hungry animal continues to flounder in the shallows till knocked on the head, or till the returning tide seasonably comes to its relief. But all this tribe, and the dolphin in particular, are not less swift than destructive. No fish could escape them, but from the awkward position of the mouth, which is placed in a manner under the head: yet, even with these disadvantages, their depredations are so great, that they have been justly styled the plunderers of the deep.

What could induce the ancients to a predilection in favour of these animals, particularly the dolphin, it is not easy to account for. Historians and philosophers seem to have contended who should invent the greatest number of fables concerning them. The dolphin was celebrated in the earliest time for its fondness to the human race, and was distinguished by the epithets of the boy-loving and philanthropist. Scarcely an accident could happen at sea, but the dolphin offered himself to convey the unfortunate to shore. The musician flung into the sea by pirates, the boy taking an airing in the midst of the sea, and returning again in safety, were obliged to the dolphin for its services. It is not easy, I say, to assign a cause why the ancients should thus have invented so many fables in their favour. The figure of these animals is far from prejudicing us in their interest; their extreme rapacity tends still less to endear them; I know nothing that can reconcile them to man and excite his prejudices, except that when taken they sometimes have a plaintive moan, with which they continue to express their pain till they expire. This, at first, might have excited human pity; and that might have

produced affection. At present, these fishes are regarded even by the vulgar in a very different light; their appearance is far from being esteemed a favourable omen by the seamen; and from their boundings, springs, and frolics in the water, experience has taught the mariners to prepare for a storm.

But it is not to one circumstance only that the ancients have confined their fabulous reports concerning these animals; as from their leaps out of their element, they assume a temporary curvature, which is by no means their natural figure in the water, the old painters and sculptors have universally drawn them wrong. A dolphin is scarcely ever exhibited by the ancients in a straight shape, but curved, in the position which they sometimes appear in when exerting their force; and the poets too have adopted the general error. Even Pliny, the best naturalist, has asserted, that they instantly die when taken out of the water; but Rondelet, on the contrary, assures us that he has seen a dolphin carried alive from Montpellier to Lyons.

The moderns have more just notions of these animals; and have got over the many fables, which every day's experience contradicts. Indeed their numbers are so great, and, though shy, they are so often taken, that such peculiarities, if they were possessed of any, would have been long since ascertained. They are found, the porpoise especially, in such vast numbers, in all parts of the sea that surrounds this kingdom, that they are sometimes noxious to seamen, when they sail in small vessels. In some places they almost darken the water as they rise to take breath, and particularly before bad weather are much agitated, swimming against the wind, and tumbling about with unusual violence.

Whether these motions be the gambols of pleasure or the agitations of terror, is not well known. It is most probable that they dread those seasons of turbulence, when the lesser fishes shrink to the bottom, and their prey no longer offers in such abundance. In times of fairer weather they are seen herding together, and pursuing shoals of various fish with great impetuosity. Their method of hunting their game, if it may be so called, is to follow in a pack, and thus give each other mutual assistance. At that

season, when the mackarel, the herring, the salmon, and other fish of passage, begin to make their appearance, the cetaceous tribes are seen fierce in the pursuit; urging their prey from one creek or bay to another, deterring them from the shallows, driving them towards each other's ambush, and using a greater variety of arts than hounds are seen to exert in pursuing the hare. However, the porpoise not only seeks for prey near the surface, but often descends to the bottom in search of sand-eels, and sea-worms, which it roots out of the sand with its nose, in the manner hogs harrow up the fields for food. For this purpose, the nose projects a little, is shorter and stronger than that of the dolphin; and the neck is furnished with very strong muscles, which enable it the readier to turn up the sand.

But it sometimes happens, that the impetuosity, or the hunger, of these animals, in their usual pursuits, urges them beyond the limits of safety. The fishermen, who extend their long nets for pilchards, on the coasts of Cornwall, have sometimes an unwelcome capture in one of these.—Their feeble nets, which are calculated only for taking smaller prey, suffer an universal laceration from the efforts of this strong animal to escape; and if it be not knocked on the head, before it has had time to flounder, the nets are destroyed, and the fishery interrupted. There is nothing, therefore, they so much dread, as the entangling a porpoise; and they do every thing to intimidate the animal from approaching.

Indeed, these creatures are so violent in the pursuit of their prey, that they sometimes follow a shoal of small fishes up a fresh-water river, from whence they find no small difficulty to return. We have often seen them taken in the Thames at London, both above the bridges and below them. It is curious enough to observe with what activity they avoid their pursuers, and what little time they require to fetch breath above the water. The manner of killing them is for four or five boats to spread over the part of the river in which they are seen, and with fire-arms to shoot at them the instant they rise above the water. The fish being thus for some time kept in agitation, requires to come to the surface at quicker intervals, and thus affords the marksmen more frequent opportunities.

When the porpoise is taken, it becomes no inconsiderable capture, as it yields a very large quantity of oil ; and the lean of some, particularly if the animal be young, is said to be as well tasted as veal. The inhabitants of Norway prepare, from the eggs found in the body of this fish, a kind of cavier, which is said to be a very delicate sauce, or good when even eaten with bread. There is a fishery for porpoise along the western isles of Scotland during the summer season, when they abound on that shore ; and this branch of industry turns to good advantage.

As for the rest, we are told, that these animals go with young ten months ; that, like the whale, they seldom bring forth above one at a time, and that in the midst of summer : that they live to a considerable age ; though some say not above twenty-five or thirty years ; and they sleep with the snout above water. They seem to possess, in a degree proportioned to their bulk, the manners of whales ; and the history of one species of cetaceous animals, will, in a great measure, serve for all the rest.

BOOK II.

OF CARTILAGINOUS FISHES.

CHAP. I.

OF CARTILAGINOUS FISHES IN GENERAL.

WE have seen that fishes of the cetaceous kind bear a strong resemblance to quadrupeds in their conformation; those of the cartilaginous kinds are one remove separated from them; they form the shade that completes the imperceptible gradations of Nature.

The first great distinction they exhibit is, in having cartilages or gristles instead of bones. The cetaceous tribes have their bones entirely resembling those of quadrupeds; thick, white, and filled with marrow; those of the spinous kind, on the contrary, have small slender bones, with points resembling thorns, and generally solid throughout. Fishes of the cartilaginous kinds have their bones always soft and yielding; and age, that hardens the bones of other animals, rather contributes still more to soften theirs. The size of all fishes increases with age; but from the pliancy of the bones in this tribe, they seem to have no bounds placed to their dimensions; and it is supposed that they grow larger every day till they die.

They have other differences, more obviously discernible. We have observed, that the cetaceous tribes had lungs like quadrupeds, a heart with its partition in the same manner, and an apparatus for hearing; on the other hand, we mentioned that the spinous kinds had no organs of hearing, no lungs to breathe through, and no partition in the heart; but that their cold red blood was circulated by the means;

the impulse made upon their gills by the water. Cartilaginous fishes unite both these systems in their conformation: like the cetaceous tribes, they have organs of hearing, and lungs; like the spinous kinds, they have gills, and a part without a partition. Thus possessed of a twofold power of breathing, sometimes by means of their lungs, sometimes by that of their gills, they seem to unite all the advantages of which their situation is capable, and drawing from both elements every aid to their necessities or their enjoyments.

This double capacity of breathing in these animals, is one of the most remarkable features in the history of Nature. The apertures by which they breathe, are somewhere placed about the head; either beneath, as in flat fish; on the sides, as in sharks; or on the top of the head, as in pipe-fish. To these apertures are the gills affixed, but without any bone to open and shut them, as in spinous fishes; from which, by this mark, they may be easily distinguished, though otherwise very much alike in appearance. From these are bending cylindrical ducts, that run to the lungs, and are supposed to convey the air, that gives the organs their proper play. The heart, however, has but one valve; so that their blood wants that double circulation which obtains in the cetaceous kinds; and the lungs seem to be rather as an internal assistant to the gills, than fitted for supplying the same offices as in quadrupeds, for they want the pulmonary vein and artery.

From this structure, however, the animal is enabled to live a longer time out of water than those whose gills are more simple. The cartilaginous shark, or ray, live some hours after they are taken; while the spinous herring or mackarel expire a few minutes after they are brought on shore. From hence this tribe seems possessed of powers that other fishes are wholly deprived of; they can remain continually under water, without ever taking breath; while they can venture their heads above the deep, and continue for hours out of their native element.

We observed, in a former chapter, that spinous fishes have not, or at least appear not to have, externally any instruments of generation. It is very different with those of the cartilaginous kind, for the male always has these instruments double. The fish of this tribe are not unfrequently

seen to copulate; and their manner is belly to belly, such as may naturally be expected from animals whose parts of generation are placed forward. They in general choose colder seasons and situations, than other fish for propagating their kind; and many of them bring forth in the midst of winter.

The same duplicity of character which marks their general conformation, obtains also with regard to their manner of bringing forth. Some bring forth their young alive; and some bring forth eggs, which are afterwards brought to maturity. In all, however, the manner of gestation is nearly the same; for upon dissection, it is ever found, that the young, while in the body, continue in the egg till a very little time before they are excluded: these eggs they may properly be said to hatch within their body; and as soon as their young quit the shell, they begin to quit the womb also. Unlike to quadrupeds, or the cetaceous tribes, that quit the egg state in a few days after their first conception, and continue in the womb several months after, these continue in the body of the female, in their egg state, for weeks together; and the eggs are found linked together by a membrane, from which, when the foetus gets free, it continues but a very short time till it delivers itself from its confinement in the womb. The eggs themselves consist of a white and a yolk, and have a substance, instead of shell, that aptly may be compared to softened horn. These, as I observed, are sometimes hatched in the womb, as in the shark and ray kinds; and they are sometimes excluded, as in the sturgeon, before the animal comes to its time of disengaging. Thus we see that there seems very little difference between the viviparous and the oviparous kinds, in this class of fishes: the one hatch their eggs in the womb, and the young continue no long time there; the others exclude their eggs before hatching, and leave it to time and accident to bring their young to maturity.

Such are the peculiar marks of the cartilaginous class of fishes, of which there are many kinds. To give a distinct description of every fish is as little my intention, as perhaps it is the wish of the reader; but the peculiarities of each kind deserve notice; and the most striking of these it would be unpardonable to omit.

Cartilaginous fish may be divided first into those of the shark kind, with a body growing less towards the tail, a rough skin, with the mouth placed far beneath the end of the nose, five apertures on the sides of the neck for breathing; and the upper part of the tail longer than the lower. This class chiefly comprehends the Great White Shark, the Balance Fish, the Hound Fish, the Monk Fish, the Dog Fish, the Basking Shark, the *Zygæna*, the Tope, the Cat Fish, the Blue Shark, the Sea Fox, the Smooth Hound Fish, and the Porbeagle. These are all of the same nature, and differ more in size, than in figure or conformation.

The next division is that of flat fish; and these their broad, flat, thin shape, is sufficiently capable of distinguishing from all others of this kind. They may be easily distinguished also from spinous flat fish, by the holes through which they breathe, which are uncovered by a bone; and which, in this kind, are five on each side. In this tribe we may place the Torpedo, the Skate, the Sharp-nosed Ray, the Rough Ray, the Thornback, and the Fire Flare.

The third division is that of the slender snake-shaped kind; such as the Lamprey, the Pride, and the Pipe-fish.

The fourth division is of the Sturgeon and its variety, the Ising-glass Fish.

The last division may comprise fish of different figures and natures, that do not rank under the former divisions. These are the Sun Fish, the Tetrodon, the Lump Fish, the Sea Snail, the Chimæra, and the Fishing Frog. Each of these has somewhat peculiar in its powers or its forms, that deserves to be remarked. The description of the figures of these at least may compensate for our general ignorance of the rest of their history.

CHAP. II.

OF CARTILAGINOUS FISHES OF THE SHARK KIND.

OF all the inhabitants of the deep, those of the shark kind are the fiercest and the most voracious. The smallest of this tribe is not less dreaded by greater fish, than many that to appearance seem more powerful; nor do any of them seem fearful of attacking animals far above their

size : but the Great White Shark, which is the largest of the kind, joins to the most amazing rapidity, the strongest appetites for mischief : as he approaches nearly in size to the whale, he far surpasses him in strength and celerity, in the formidable arrangement of his teeth, and his insatiable desire of plunder.

The White Shark is sometimes seen to rank even among whales for magnitude ; and is found from twenty to thirty feet long. Some assert that they have seen them of four thousand pound weight ; and we are told particularly of one, that had a human corpse in his belly. The head is large, and somewhat flattened ; the snout long, and the eyes large. The mouth is enormously wide, as is the throat, and capable of swallowing a man with great ease. But its furniture of teeth is still more terrible ; of these there are six rows, extremely hard, sharp-pointed, and of a wedge-like figure. It is asserted that there are seventy-two in each jaw, which make an hundred and forty-four in the whole ; yet others think that their number is uncertain ; and that in proportion as the animal grows older, these terrible instruments of destruction are found to increase. With these the jaws, both above and below, appear planted all over ; but the animal has a power of erecting or depressing them at pleasure. When the shark is at rest, they lie quite flat in his mouth ; but when he prepares to seize his prey, he erects all this dreadful apparatus, by the help of a set of muscles that join them to the jaw ; and the animal he seizes, dies, pierced with a hundred wounds, in a moment.

Nor is this fish less terrible to behold as to the rest of his form : his fins are larger in proportion ; he is furnished with great goggle eyes, that he turns with ease on every side, so as to see his prey behind him as well as before ; and his whole aspect is marked with a character of malignity : his skin also is rough, hard, and prickly ; being that substance which covers instrument cases, called shagreen.

As the shark is thus formidable in his appearance, so is he also dreadful from his courage and activity. No fish can swim so fast as he ; none so constantly employed in swimming : he outstrips the swiftest ships, plays round them ; darts out before them, returns, seems to gaze at the passengers, and all the while does not seem to exhibit the

smallest symptom of an effort to proceed. Such amazing powers, with such great appetites for destruction, would quickly unpeople even the ocean, but providentially, the shark's upper jaw projects so far above the lower, that he is obliged to turn on one side, (not on his back, as is generally supposed;) to seize his prey. As this takes some small time to perform, the animal pursued seizes that opportunity to make its escape.

Still, however, the depredations he commits are frequent and formidable. The shark is the dread of sailors in all hot climates; where, like a greedy robber, he attends the ships, in expectation of what may drop over-board. A man who unfortunately falls into the sea at such a time, is sure to perish, without mercy. A sailor that was bathing in the Mediterranean, near Antibes, in the year 1744, while he was swimming about fifty yards from the ship, perceived a monstrous fish making towards him, and surveying him on every side, as fish are often seen to look round a bait. The poor man, struck with terror at its approach, cried out to his companions in the vessel to take him on board. They accordingly threw him a rope with the utmost expedition, and were drawing him up by the ship's side, when the shark darted after him from the deep, and snapped off his leg.

Mr. Pennant tells us, that the master of a Guinea-ship, finding a rage for suicide prevail among his slaves, from a notion the unhappy creatures had, that after death they should be restored again to their families, friends, and country; to convince them at least that some disgrace should attend them here, he ordered one of their dead bodies to be tied by the heels to a rope, and so let down into the sea; and, though it was drawn up again with great swiftness, yet, in that short space, the sharks had bit off all but the feet. Whether this story is prior to an accident of the same kind, which happened at Belfast in Ireland, about twenty years ago, I will not take upon me to determine; but certain it is, there are some circumstances alike in both, though more terrible in that I am going to relate. A Guinea captain was, by stress of weather, driven into the harbour of Belfast, with a lading of very sickly slaves, who, in the manner above-mentioned, took every opportunity to throw themselves overboard when brought up

upon the deck, as usual, for the benefit of the fresh air. The captain perceiving, among others, a woman slave attempting to drown herself, pitched upon her as a proper example to the rest. As he supposed that they did not know the terrors attending death, he ordered the woman to be tied with a rope under the arm-pits, and so let her down into the water. When the poor creature was thus plunged in, and about half way down, she was heard to give a terrible shriek, which at first was ascribed to her fears of drowning; but soon after the water appearing red all round her, she was drawn up, and it was found that a shark, which had followed the ship, had bit her off from the middle.

Such is the frightful rapacity of this animal; nothing that has life is rejected. But it seems to have a peculiar enmity to man: when once it has tasted human flesh, it never desists from haunting those places where it expects the return of its prey. It is even asserted, that along the coasts of Africa, where these animals are found in great abundance, numbers of the negroes, who are obliged to frequent the waters, are seized and devoured by them every year. The people of these coasts are firmly of opinion, that the shark loves the black man's flesh in preference to the white, and that when men of different colours are in the water together, it always makes choice of the former.

However this be, men of all colours are equally afraid of this animal, and have contrived different methods to destroy him. In general, they derive their success from the shark's own rapacity. The usual method of our sailors to take him, is by baiting a great hook with a piece of beef or pork, which is thrown out into the sea by a strong cord, strengthened near the hook with an iron chain. Without this precaution, the shark would quickly bite the cord in two, and thus set himself free. It is no unpleasant amusement to observe this voracious animal coming up to survey the bait, particularly when not pressed by hunger. He approaches it, examines it, swims round it, seems for a while to neglect it, perhaps apprehensive of the cord and chain: he quits it for a little; but his appetite pressing, he returns again; appears preparing to devour it, but quits it once more. When the sailors have sufficiently diverted themselves with his different evolutions, they then

make a pretence, by drawing the rope, as if intending to take the bait away: it is then that the glutton's hunger excites him; he darts at the bait, and swallows it, hook and all. Sometimes, however, he does not so entirely gorge the whole, but that he once more gets free; yet even then, though wounded and bleeding with the hook, he will again pursue the bait until he is taken. When he finds the hook lodged in his maw, his utmost efforts are then excited, but in vain, to get free; he tries with his teeth to cut the chain; he pulls with all his force to break the line; he almost seems to turn his stomach inside out, to disgorge the hook: in this manner he continues his formidable though fruitless efforts; till, quite spent, he suffers his head to be drawn above water, and the sailors, confining his tail by a noose, in this manner draw him on ship-board, and dispatch him. This is done by beating him on the head till he dies; yet even that is not effected without difficulty and danger; the enormous creature, terrible even in the agonies of death, still struggles with his destroyers; nor is there an animal in the world that is harder to be killed. Even when cut in pieces, the muscles still preserve their motion, and vibrate for some minutes after being separated from the body. Another method of taking them, is by striking a barbed instrument, called a fizgig, into his body, as he brushes along by the side of the ship. As soon as he is taken up, to prevent his flouncing, they cut off the tail with an axe, with the utmost expedition.

This is the manner in which Europeans destroy the shark; but some of the Negroes along the African coast, take a bolder and more dangerous method to combat their terrible enemy. Armed with nothing more than a knife, the Negro plunges into the water, where he sees the shark watching for his prey, and boldly swims forward to meet him: though the great animal does not come to provoke the combat, he does not avoid it, and suffers the man to approach him; but just as he turns upon his side to seize the aggressor, the Negro watches the opportunity, plunges his knife into the fish's belly, and pursues his blows with such success, that he lays the ravenous tyrant dead at the bottom: he soon, however returns, fixes the fish's head in a noose, and drags him to shore, where he makes a noble feast for the adjacent villages.

Nor is man alone the only enemy this fish has to fear: the Remora, or Sucking-fish, is probably a still greater, and follows the shark every where. This fish has got a power of adhering to whatever it sticks against, in the same manner as a cupping-glass sticks to the human body. It is by such an apparatus that this animal sticks to the shark, and drains away its moisture. The seamen, however, are of opinion, that it is seen to attend on the shark for more friendly purposes, to point him to his prey, and to apprise him of his danger. For this reason it has been called the Shark's Pilot.

The shark so much resembles the whale in size, that some have injudiciously ranked it in the class of cetaceous fishes; but its real rank is in the place here assigned it, among those of the cartilaginous kind. It breathes with gills and lungs, its bones are gristly, and it brings forth several living young: Belonius assures us, that he saw a female shark produce eleven live young ones at a time. But I will not take upon me to vouch for the veracity of Rondeletius, who, when talking of the blue shark, says, that the female will permit her small brood, when in danger, to swim down her mouth, and take shelter in her belly. Mr. Pennant, indeed, seems to give credit to the story, and thinks that this fish, like the opossum, may have a place fitted by nature for the reception of her young. To his opinion much deference is due, and is sufficient, at least, to make us suspend our dissent; for nothing is so contemptible as that affectation of wisdom which some display, by universal incredulity.*

Upon the whole, a shark, when living, is a very formidable animal; and, when dead, is of very little value. The flesh is hardly digestible by any but the Negroes, who are fond of it to distraction: the liver affords three or four

* Sharks, as well as the Ray tribe, bring forth their young alive, more than one at a time, and each inclosed in a square horny case, terminated at the four corners by slender filaments. After being in the uterus some time, these natural pouches open at one end, and the young fish escapes from his confinement. These receptacles are, in the shark, of a pellucid horn-colour, terminated at the corners by very long slender filaments, which are generally found twisted round coral, sea-weeds, and other substances, to prevent their being driven on shore before the young is excluded: those of the Ray tribe are black, with the filaments hardly longer than this, and are frequently cast on our shores in great abundance.

quarts of oil; some imaginary virtues have been ascribed to the brain; and its skin is, by great labour, polished into that substance called shagreen. Mr. Pennant is of opinion, that the female is larger than the male in all this tribe; which would, if confirmed by experience, make a striking agreement between them and birds of prey. It were to be wished that succeeding historians would examine into this observation, which is offered only as a conjecture!

CHAP. III.

OF CARTILAGINOUS FLAT-FISH, OR THE RAY KIND.

THE same rapacity which impels the shark along the surface of the water, actuates the flat fish at the bottom. Less active, and less formidable, they creep in security along the bottom, seize every thing that comes in their way; neither the hardest shells nor the sharpest spines give protection to the animals that bear them; their insatiable hunger is such, that they devour all; and the force of their stomach is so great, that it easily digests them.

The whole of this kind resemble each other very strongly in their figure; nor is it easy, without experience, to distinguish one from another. The stranger to this dangerous tribe may imagine he is only handling a skate, when he is instantly struck numb by the torpedo; he may suppose he has caught a thornback, till he is stung by the fire-flare. It will be proper, therefore, after describing the general figure of these animals, to mark their differences.

All fish of the ray kind are broad, cartilaginous, swimming flat on the water, and having spines on different parts of their body, or at the tail. They all have their eyes and mouth placed quite under the body, with apertures for breathing either about or near them. They all have teeth, or a rough bone, which answers the same purpose. Their bowels are very wide towards the mouth, and go on diminishing to the tail. The tail is very differently shaped from that of other fishes; and at first sight more resembling that

of a quadruped, being narrow, and ending either in a bunch or a point. But what they are chiefly distinguished by, is, their spines or prickles, which the different species have on different parts of their body. Some are armed with spines both above and below; others have them on the upper part only; some have their spines at the tail; some have three rows of them, and others but one. These prickles in some are comparatively soft and feeble; those of others, strong and piercing. The smallest of these spines are usually inclining towards the tail; the larger towards the head.

It is by the spines that these animals are distinguished from each other. The skate has the middle of the back rough, and a single row of spines on the tail. The sharp-nosed ray has ten spines that are situated towards the middle of the back. The rough ray has its spines spread indiscriminately over the whole back. The thorn-back has its spines disposed in three rows upon the back. The fire-flare has but one spine, but that indeed a terrible one.—This dangerous weapon is placed on the tail, about four inches from the body, and is not less than five inches long. It is of a flinty hardness, the sides thin, sharp-pointed, and closely and sharply bearded the whole way. The last of this tribe that I shall mention is the torpedo; and this animal has no spines that can wound; but in the place of them it is possessed of one of the most potent and extraordinary faculties in nature.

Such are the principal differences that may enable us to distinguish animals, some of which are of very great use to mankind, from others that are terrible and noxious. With respect to their uses indeed, as we shall soon see, they differ much; but the similitude among them, as to their nature, appetites, and conformation, is perfect and entire. They are all as voracious as they are plenty; and as dangerous to a stranger, as useful to him who can distinguish their differences.

Of all the larger fish of the sea, these are the most numerous; and they owe their numbers to their size. Except the white shark and cachalot alone, there is no other fish that has a swallow large enough to take them in; and their spines make them a still more dangerous morsel. Yet the size of some is such, that even the shark himself is unable

to devour them; we have seen some of them in England weigh above two hundred pounds; but that is nothing to their enormous bulk in other parts of the world. Labat tells us of a prodigious ray that was speared by the Negroes at Guadaloupe, which was thirteen feet eight inches broad, and above ten feet from the snout to the insertion of the tail. The tail itself was in proportion, for it was no less than fifteen feet long, twenty inches broad at its insertion, and tapering to a point. The body was too feet in depth; the skin as thick as leather, and marked with spots; which spots, in all of this kind, are only glands, that supply a mucus to lubricate and soften the skin. This enormous fish was utterly unfit to be eaten by Europeans; but the Negroes chose out some of the nicest bits, and carefully salted them up as a most favourite provision.

Yet, large as this may seem, it is very probable that we have seen only the smallest of the kind; as they generally keep at the bottom, the largest of the kind are seldom seen; and, as they may probably have been growing for ages, the extent of their magnitude is unknown. It is generally supposed, however, that they are the largest inhabitants of the deep; and, were we to credit the Norway Bishop, there are some above a mile over. But to suppose an animal of such a magnitude is absurd; yet the overstretching the supposition does not destroy the probability that animals of this tribe grow to an enormous size.

The ray generally chooses for its retreat such parts of the sea as have a black muddy bottom; the large ones keep at greater depths; but the smaller approach the shores, and feed upon whatever living animals they can surprise, or whatever putrid substances they meet with. As they are ravenous, they easily take the bait, yet will not touch it if it be taken up and kept a day or two out of water. Almost all fish appear much more delicate with regard to a baited hook than their ordinary food. They appear by their manner to perceive the line, and to dread it; but the impulse of their hunger is too great for their caution; and, even though they perceive the danger, if thoroughly hungry they devour the destruction.

These fish generate in March and April; at which time only they are seen swimming near the surface of the water,

several of the males pursuing one female. They adhere so fast together in coition, that the fishermen frequently draw up both together, though only one has been hooked. The females are prolific to an extreme degree; there having been no less than three hundred eggs taken out of the body of a single ray. These eggs are covered with a tough horny substance, which they acquire in the womb; for before they descend into that, they are attached to the ovary pretty much in the same manner as in the body of a pullet. From this ovary, or egg-bag, as it is vulgarly called; the fish's eggs drop one by one into the womb, and there receive a shell by the concretion of the fluids of that organ. When come to the proper maturity, they are excluded, but never above one or two at a time, and often at intervals of three or four hours. These eggs, or purses, as the fishermen call them, are usually cast about the beginning of May, and they continue casting during the whole summer. In October, when their breeding ceases, they are exceedingly poor and thin; but in November they begin to improve, and grow gradually better till May, when they are in the highest perfection.

It is chiefly during the winter season that our fishermen take them; but the Dutch, who are indefatigable, begin their operations earlier, and fish with better success than we. The method practised by the fishermen of Scarborough is thought to be the best among the English; and, as Mr. Pennant has given a very succinct account of it, I will take leave to present it to the reader.

“When they go out to fish, each person is provided with three lines: each man's lines are fairly coiled upon a flat oblong piece of wicker-work; the hooks being baited and placed very regularly in the centre of the coil. Each line is furnished with two hundred and eighty hooks, at the distance of six feet two inches from each other. The hooks are fastened to lines of twisted horse-hair, twenty-seven inches in length.

“When fishing, there are always three men in each coble; and consequently nine of these lines are fastened together; and used as one line, extending in length near three miles, and furnished with above two thousand five hundred hooks. An anchor and a buoy are fixed at the first end of the line, and one more at each end of each man's lines;

in all, four anchors, and four buoys made of leather or cork. The line is always laid across the current. The tides of flood and ebb continue an equal time upon our coast; and, when undisturbed by winds, run each way about six hours. They are so rapid that the fishermen can only shoot and haul their lines at the turn of the tide; and therefore the lines always remain upon the ground about six hours. The same rapidity of tide prevents their using hand-lines; and, therefore, two of the people commonly wrap themselves in the sail and sleep, while the other keeps a strict look-out, for fear of being run down by ships, and to observe the weather; for storms often rise so suddenly, that it is sometimes with extreme difficulty they escape to the shore, though they leave their lines behind them.

“The coble is twenty feet six inches long, and five feet extreme breadth. It is about one ton burden, rowed with three pair of oars, and admirably constructed for the purpose of encountering a mountainous sea. They hoist sail when the wind suits.

“The five-men-boat is forty feet long, fifteen broad, and twenty-five tons burden. It is so called, though navigated by six men and a boy; because one of the men is hired to cook, and does not share in the profits with the other five.—All our able fishermen go in these boats to the herring fishery at Yarmouth, the latter end of September, and return about the middle of November. The boats are then laid up until the beginning of Lent, at which time they go off in them to the edge of the Dogger, and other places, to fish for turbot, cod, ling, skate, &c. They always take two cobbles on board, and when they come upon their ground, anchor the boat, throw out the cobbles, and fish in the same manner as those do who go from the shore in a coble; with this difference only, that here each man is provided with double the quantity of lines, and, instead of waiting the return of the tide in the coble, return to the boat, and bait their other lines; thus hauling one set, and shooting another, every turn of tide. They commonly run into the harbour twice a week, to deliver their fish. The five-men-boat is decked at each end, but open in the middle, and has two long sails.

“ The best bait for all kinds of fish, is fresh herring cut in pieces of a proper size ; and, notwithstanding what has been said to the contrary, they are taken there at any time in the winter, and all the spring, whenever the fishermen put down their nets for that purpose : the five-men-boats always take some nets for that end. Next to herrings are the lesser lampreys, which come all winter by land-carriage from Tadcaster. The next baits in esteem are small haddocks cut in pieces, sand-worms, muscles, and limpets ; and, lastly, when none of these can be found, they use bullock’s liver. The hooks used there are much smaller than those employed at Iceland and Newfoundland. Experience has shewn that the larger fish will take a living small one upon the hook, sooner than any bait that can be put on ; therefore they use such as the fish can swallow. The hooks are two inches and a half long in the shank ; and near an inch wide between the shank and the point. The line is made of small cording, and is always tanned before it is used. All the rays and turbot are extremely delicate in their choice of baits : if a piece of herring or haddock has been twelve hours out of the sea, and then used as a bait, they will not touch it.”

Such is the manner of fishing for those fish that usually keep near the bottom on the coasts of England ; and Duhamel observes, that the best weather for succeeding, is a half-calm, when the waves are just curled with a silent breeze.

But this extent of line, which runs, as we have seen, three miles along the bottom, is nothing to what the Italians throw out in the Mediterranean. Their fishing is carried on in a tartan, which is a vessel much larger than ours ; and they bait a line of no less than twenty miles long, with above ten or twelve thousand hooks. This line is called the *parasina* : and the fishing goes by that of the *pièlago*. This line is not regularly drawn every six hours, as with us, but remains for some time in the sea, and it requires the space of twenty-four hours to take it up. By this apparatus they take rays, sharks, and other fish ; some of which are above a thousand pound weight. When they have caught any of this magnitude, they strike them through with a harpoon to bring them on board, and kill them as fast as they can.

This method of catching fish is obviously fatiguing, and dangerous; but the value of the capture generally repays the pains. The skate and the thornback are very good food, and their size, which is from ten pounds to two hundred weight, very well rewards the trouble of fishing for them. But it sometimes happens that the lines are visited by very unwelcome intruders; by the rough ray, the fire-flare, or the torpedo. To all these the fishermen have the most mortal antipathy; and, when discovered, shudder at the sight: however, they are not always so much upon their guard, but that they sometimes feel the different resentments of this angry tribe; and, instead of a prize, find they have caught a vindictive enemy. When such is the case, they take care to throw them back into the sea with the swiftest expedition.

The rough ray inflicts but slight wounds with the prickles with which its whole body is furnished. To the ignorant it seems harmless, and a man would at first sight venture to take it in his hand, without any apprehension; but he soon finds, that there is not a single part of its body that is not armed with spines; and that there is no way of seizing the animal, but by the little fin at the end of the tail.

But this animal is harmless, when compared to the fire-flare, which seems to be the dread of even the boldest and most experienced fishermen. The weapon with which nature has armed this animal, which grows from the tail, and which we described as barbed, and five inches long, hath been an instrument of terror to the ancient fishermen as well as the modern: and they have delivered many tremendous fables of its astonishing effects. Pliny, Ælian, and Oppian, have supplied it with a venom that affects even the inanimate creation: trees that are struck by it instantly lose their verdure, and rocks themselves are incapable of resisting the potent poison. The enchantress Circe armed her son with a spear headed with the spine of the trygon, as the most irresistible weapon she could furnish him with; a weapon that soon after was to be the death of his own father.

“That spears and darts,” says Mr. Pennant, might in very early times have been headed with this bone instead of iron, we have no doubt. The Americans head their

arrows with the bones of fishes to this day; and, from their hardness and sharpness, they are no contemptible weapons. But that this spine is possessed of those venomous qualities ascribed to it, we have every reason to doubt; though some men of high reputation, and the whole body of fishermen, contend for its venomous effects. It is, in fact, a weapon of offence belonging to this animal, and capable, from its barbs, of inflicting a very terrible wound, attended with dangerous symptoms; but it cannot be possessed of any poison, as the spine has no sheath to preserve the supposed venom on its surface; and the animal has no gland that separates the noxious fluid: besides, all those animals that are furnished with envenomed fangs or stings, seem to have them strongly connected with their safety and existence; they never part with them; there is an apparatus of poison prepared in the body to accompany their exertions; and when the fangs or stings are taken away, the animal languishes and dies. But it is otherwise with the spine of the fire-flare; it is fixed to the tail, as a quill is into the tail of a fowl, and is annually shed in the same manner: it may be necessary for the creature's defence, but it is no way necessary for its existence. The wound inflicted by an animal's tail, has something terrible in the idea, and may from thence alone be supposed to be fatal. From hence terror might have added poison to the pain, and called up imagined dangers: the Negroes universally believe that the sting is poisonous; but they never die of the wound; for by opening the fish, and laying it to the part injured, it effects a speedy cure. The slightness of the remedy proves the innocence of the wound.*

The Torpedo is an animal of this kind, equally formidable and well known with the former; but the manner of its operating is to this hour a mystery to mankind. The body of this fish is almost circular, and thicker than others of the ray kind; the skin is soft, smooth, and of a yellowish colour, marked, as all the kind, with large annular spots; the eyes very small; the tail tapering to a point; and the weight of the fish from a quarter to fifteen pounds. Redi found one twenty-four pounds weight. To all

* The account of the venomous properties of this spine, as well as that it is shed annually, appears to be altogether fabulous. It is probable that, by its great strength, it may be able to inflict a painfully lacerated wound

outward appearance, it is furnished with no extraordinary powers; it has no muscles formed for particularly great exertions; no internal conformation perceptibly differing from the rest of its kind; yet such is that unaccountable power it possesses, that, the instant it is touched, it numbs not only the hand and arm, but sometimes also the whole body. The shock received, by all accounts, most resembles the stroke of an electrical machine; sudden, tingling, and painful. "The instant," says Kempfer, "I touched it with my hand, I felt a terrible numbness in my arm, and as far up as the shoulder. Even if one treads upon it with the shoe on, it affects not only the leg, but the whole thigh upwards. Those who touch it with the foot, are seized with a stronger palpitation than even those who touch it with the hand.—This numbness bears no resemblance to that which we feel when a nerve is a long time pressed, and the foot is said to be asleep; it rather appears like a sudden vapour, which passing through the pores in an instant, penetrates to the very springs of life, from whence it diffuses itself over the whole body, and gives real pain. The nerves are so affected, that the person struck imagines all the bones of his body, and particularly those of the limb that received the blow, are driven out of joint. All this is accompanied with an universal tremor, a sickness of the stomach, a general convulsion, and a total suspension of the faculties of the mind. In short," continues Kempfer, "such is the pain, that all the force of our promises and authority could not prevail upon a seaman to undergo the shock a second time. A Negro, indeed, that was standing by, readily undertook to touch the torpedo, and was seen to handle it without feeling any of its effects. He informed us, that his whole secret consisted in keeping in his breath; and we found, upon trial, that this method answered with ourselves. When we held in our breath, the torpedo was harmless; but when we breathed ever so little, its efficacy took place."

Kempfer has very well described the effects of this animal's shock; but succeeding experience has abundantly convinced us, that holding in the breath no way guards against its violence. Those, therefore, who depending on that receipt, should play with a torpedo, would soon find themselves painfully undeceived: not but that this fish may be many times touched with perfect security; for it is not upon every

occasion that it exerts its potency. Reaumur, who made several trials upon this animal, has at least convinced the world that it is not necessarily, but by an effort, that the torpedo numbs the hand of him that touches it. He tried several times, and could easily tell when the fish intended the stroke, and when it was about to continue harmless. Always before the fish intended the stroke, it flattened the back, raised the head and the tail, and then, by a violent contraction in the opposite direction, struck with its back against the pressing finger; and the body, which before was flat, became humped and round.

But we must not infer, as he has done, that the whole effect of this animal's exertions arise from the greatness of the blow which the fingers receive at the instant they are struck. We will, with him, allow, that the stroke is very powerful, equal to that of a musquet-ball, since he will have it so; but it is very well known, that a blow, though never so great, on the points of the fingers, diffuses no numbness over the whole body: such a blow might break the ends of the fingers indeed, but would hardly numb the shoulder. Those blows that numb, must be applied immediately to some great and leading nerve, or to a large surface of the body; a powerful stroke applied to the points of the fingers will be excessively painful indeed, but the numbness will not reach beyond the fingers themselves. We must, therefore, look for another cause producing the powerful effects wrought by the torpedo.

Others have ascribed it to a tremulous motion which this animal is found to possess, somewhat resembling that of a horse's skin, when stung by a fly. This operating under the touch with an amazing quickness of vibration, they suppose produces the uneasy sensation described above; something similar to what we feel when we rub plush cloth against the grain. But the cause is quite disproportioned to the effect; and so much beyond our experience, that this solution is as difficult as the wonder we want to explain.

The most probable solution seems to be, that the shock proceeds from an animal electricity, which this fish has some hidden power of storing up, and producing on its most urgent occasions. The shocks are entirely similar; the duration of the pain is the same; but how the animal contrives to renew the charge, how it is prevented from

evaporating it on contiguous objects, how it is originally procured, these are difficulties that time alone can elucidate.

But to know even the effects is wisdom. Certain it is, that the powers of this animal seem to decline with its vigour; for as its strength ceases, the force of the shock seems to diminish; till, at last, when the fish is dead, the whole power is destroyed, and it may be handled or eaten with perfect security: on the contrary, when immediately taken out of the sea, its force is very great, and not only affects the hand, but if even touched with a stick, the person finds himself sometimes affected. This power, however, is not to be extended to the degree that some would have us believe; as reaching the fishermen at the end of the line, or numbing fishes in the same pond. Godignus, in his History of Abyssinia, carries this quality to a most ridiculous excess; he tells us of one of these that was put into a basket among a number of dead fishes, and that the next morning the people, to their utter astonishment, perceived, that the torpedo had actually numbed the dead fishes into life again.

To conclude, it is generally supposed that the female torpedo is much more powerful than the male. Lorenzini, who has made several experiments upon this animal, seems convinced that its power wholly resides in two thin muscles that cover a part of the back. These he calls the trembling fibres; and he asserts that the animal may be touched with safety in any other part. It is now known also that there are more fish, than this of the ray kind, possessed of the numbing quality, which has acquired them the name of the torpedo. These are described by Atkins and Moore, and found in great abundance along the coast of Africa. They are shaped like a mackarel, except that the head is much larger; the effects of these seem also to differ in some respects. Moore talks of keeping his hand upon the animal; which in the ray torpedo it is actually impossible to do. "There was no man in the company," says he, "that could bear to keep his hand on this animal the twentieth part of a minute, it gave him so great pain; but upon taking the hand away, the numbness went off, and all was well again. This numbing quality continued in this torpedo even after it was dead; and the very skin was still possessed of its extraordinary power till it became dry." Condamine informs us of a fish possessed of the powers

of the torpedo, of a shape very different from the former, and every way resembling a lamprey. This animal, if touched by the hand, or even with a stick, instantly benumbs the hand and arm to the very shoulder; and sometimes the man falls down under the blow. These animals, therefore, must affect the nervous system in a different manner from the former, both with respect to the manner and the intention; but how this effect is wrought, we must be content to dismiss in obscurity.*

* From a series of experiments made by Mr. Walsh, and communicated to the Royal Society, it appears that the powers of this animal are purely electric; though no spark could ever be discovered to proceed from it, nor were pith-balls ever affected by it. "A live Torpedo," says this ingenious experimentalist, "was placed on a table; round another table stood five persons insulated; two brass wires, each thirteen feet long, were suspended from the ceiling by silken strings; one of these wires rested by one end on the wet napkin on which the fish lay; the other end was immersed in a basin full of water, placed on a second table, on which stood four other basins likewise full of water; the first person put a finger of one hand in the basin in which the wire was immersed, and a finger of the other hand in a second basin: the second person put a finger of one hand in this last basin, and a finger of the other hand in the third; and so on successively, till the five persons communicated with one another by the water in the basins. In the last basin, one end of the second wire was immersed, and with the other end Mr. Walsh touched the torpedo; when five persons felt a commotion, which differed in nothing from that of the Leyden experiment, except in the degree of force. Mr. Walsh, who was not in the circle of conduction, received no shock. The action of the torpedo is communicated by the same mediums as that of the electric fluid; and the bodies which intercept the action of the one, intercept likewise the action of the other. The effect produced by the torpedo, when in air, appeared, on many repeated experiments, to be about four times as strong as when in water. The numbness produced by the shock of the torpedo was imitated by artificial electricity, and shewn to be producible by a quick concussion of minute shocks. This, in the torpedo, may be effected by the successive discharges of his numerous cylinders, the organs of its power, in the nature of a running fire of musquetry; the strong single shock may be his general volley. In the continued effect, as well as the instantaneous, his eyes, which are usually prominent, are withdrawn into their sockets. A coated vial was applied to it, but could not be charged.—Two other fishes are known to possess this extraordinary power: the electrical Eel, which is able to give a shock even greater than the torpedo; and the electric Silurus, whose shock is much less vigorous than either of the others.

CHAP. IV.

OF THE LAMPREY, AND ITS AFFINITIES

THERE is a species of the Lamprey served up as a great delicacy among the modern Romans, very different from ours. Whether theirs be the *maræna* of the ancients I will not pretend to say; but there is nothing more certain than that our lamprey is not. The Roman lamprey agrees with the ancient fish in being kept in ponds, and considered by the luxurious as a very great delicacy.

The lamprey, known among us, is differently estimated, according to the season in which it is caught, or the place where it has been fed. Those that leave the sea to deposit their spawn in fresh waters are the best: those that are entirely bred in our rivers, and that have never been at sea, are considered as much inferior to the former. Those that are taken in the months of March, April, or May, just upon their leaving the sea, are reckoned very good; those that are caught after they have cast their spawn, are found to be flabby, and of little value. Those caught in several of the rivers in Ireland, the people will not venture to touch; those of the English Severn, are considered as the most delicate of all other fish whatever.

The lamprey much resembles an eel in its general appearance, but is of a lighter colour, and rather a clumsier make. It differs however in the mouth, which is round, and placed rather obliquely below the end of the nose. It more resembles the mouth of a leech than an eel; and the animal has an hole on the top of the head through which it spouts water, as in the cetaceous kind. There are seven holes on each side for respiration; and the fins are formed rather by a lengthening out of the skin, than any set of bones or spines for that purpose. As the mouth is formed resembling that of a leech, so it has a property resembling that animal, of sticking close to and sucking any body it is applied to. It is extraordinary the power they have of adhering to stones; which they do so firmly, as not to be drawn off without some difficulty. We are told of one that weighed but three pounds, and yet it stuck so firmly to a stone

of twelve pounds, that it remained suspended at its mouth, from which it was separated with no small difficulty. This amazing power of suction is supposed to arise from the animal's exhausting the air within its body by the hole over the nose, while the mouth is closely fixed to the object, and permits no air to enter. It would be easy to determine the weight this animal is thus able to sustain; which will be equal to the weight of a column of air of equal diameter with the fish's mouth.

From some peculiarity of formation, this animal swims generally with its body as near as possible to the surface; and it might easily be drowned by being kept by force for any time under water. Muralto has given us the anatomy of this animal; but, in a very minute description, makes no mention of lungs. Yet I am very apt to suspect, that two red glands tissueed with nerves, which he describes as lying towards the back of the head, are no other than the lungs of this animal. The absolute necessity it is under of breathing in the air, convinces me that it must have lungs, though I do not know of any anatomist that has described them.

The adhesive quality in the lamprey may be, in some measure, increased by that slimy substance with which its body is all over smeared; a substance that serves at once to keep it warm in its cold element, and also to keep its skin soft and pliant. This mucus is separated by two long lymphatic canals, that extend on each side from the head to the tail; and that furnish it in great abundance. As to its intestines, it seems to have but one great bowel, running from the mouth to the vent, narrow at both ends, and wide in the middle.

So simple a conformation seems to imply an equal simplicity of appetite. In fact, the lamprey's food is either slime and water, or such small water-insects as are scarcely perceivable. Perhaps its appetite may be more active at sea, of which it is properly a native; but when it comes up into our rivers, it is hardly perceived to devour any thing.

Its usual time of leaving the sea, which it is annually seen to do in order to spawn, is about the beginning of spring; and after a stay of a few months it returns again to the sea. Their preparation for spawning is peculiar; their manner is to make holes in the gravelly bottom of rivers; and on this occasion their sucking power is particularly serviceable; for

if they meet with a stone of a considerable size they will remove it, and throw it out. Their young are produced from eggs in the manner of flat fish; the female remains near the place where they are excluded, and continues with them till they come forth. She is sometimes seen with her whole family playing about her; and after some time she conducts them in triumph back to the ocean.

But some have not sufficient strength to return; and these continue in the fresh water till they die. Indeed the life of this fish, according to Rondeletius, who has given its history, is but of very short continuance; and a single brood is the extent of the female's fertility. As soon as she has returned after casting her eggs, she seems exhausted and flabby. She becomes old before her time; and two years is generally the limit of her existence.

However this may be, they are very indifferent eating after they have cast their eggs, and particularly at the approach of hot weather. The best season for them is the months of March, April, and May; and they are usually taken in nets with salmon, and sometimes in baskets at the bottom of the river. It has been an old custom for the city of Gloucester annually to present the king with a lamprey-pie; and as the gift is made at Christmas, it is not without great difficulty the corporation can procure the proper quantity, though they give a guinea a-piece for taking them.

How much they were valued among the ancients, or a fish bearing some resemblance to them, appears from all the classics that have praised good living, or ridiculed gluttony. One story we are told of this fish, with which I will conclude its history. A senator of Rome, whose name does not deserve being transmitted to posterity, was famous for the delicacy of his lampreys. Tigelinus Manucius, and all the celebrated epicures of Rome, were loud in his praises: no man's fish had such a flavour, was so nicely fed, or so exactly pickled. Augustus, hearing so much of this man's entertainments, desired to be his guest; and soon found that fame had been just to his merits; the man had indeed very fine lampreys, and of an exquisite flavour. The emperor was desirous of knowing the method by which he fed his fish to so fine a relish; and the glutton, making no secret of his art, informed him, that his way was to throw into his ponds such of his slaves as had at any time dis-

pleased him. Augustus, we are told, was not much pleased with his receipt, and instantly ordered all his ponds to be filled up. The story would have ended better if he had ordered the owner to be flung in also.

CHAP. V.

THE STURGEON, AND ITS VARIETIES.

THE Sturgeon, with a form as terrible, and a body as large, as the shark, is yet as harmless as the fish we have been just describing; incapable and unwilling to injure others, it flies from the smallest fishes, and generally falls a victim to its own timidity.

The sturgeon, in its general form, resembles a fresh-water pike. The nose is long; the mouth is situated beneath, being small, and without jaw-bones or teeth. But though it is so harmless and ill provided for war, the body is formidable enough to appearance. It is long, pentagonal, and covered with five rows of large bony knobs, one row on the back and two on each side, and a number of fins to give it greater expedition. Of this fish there are three kinds; the Common Sturgeon, the Caviar Sturgeon, and the Huso or Isinglass Fish. The first has eleven knobs or scales on the back; the second has fifteen; and the latter thirteen on the back, and forty-three on the tail. These differences seem light to us who only consider the animal's form; but those who consider its uses find the distinction of considerable importance. The first is the sturgeon, the flesh of which is sent pickled into all parts of Europe. The second, is the fish from the roe of which that noted delicacy called Caviar is made; and the third, besides supplying the caviar, furnishes also the valuable commodity of isinglass. They all grow to a very great size; and some of them have been found above eighteen feet long.*

* Isinglass is prepared from various other fishes, but principally from the White Dolphin, or Belluga of North America. This well-known substance is made from the sound, or air-bladder.

There is not a country in Europe but what this fish visits at different seasons ; it annually ascends the largest rivers to spawn, and propagates in an amazing number. The inhabitants along the banks of the Po, the Danube, and the Wolga, make great profit yearly of its incursions up the stream, and have their nets prepared for its reception. The sturgeon also is brought daily to the markets of Rome and Venice, and they are known to abound in the Mediterranean sea. Yet those fish that keep entirely either in salt or fresh water are but comparatively small. When the sturgeon enjoys the vicissitude of fresh and salt water, it is then that it grows to an enormous size, so as almost to rival even the whale in magnitude.

Nor are we without frequent visits from this much esteemed fish in England. It is often accidentally taken in our rivers in salmon-nets, and particularly in those parts that are not far remote from the sea. The largest we have heard of, caught in Great Britain, was a fish taken in the Eske, where they are most frequently found, which weighed four hundred and sixty pounds. An enormous size to those who have only seen our fresh-water fishes !

North America also furnishes the sturgeon : their rivers in May, June, and July, supply them in very great abundance. At that time they are seen sporting in the water, and leaping from its surface several yards into the air. When they fall again on their sides, the concussion is so violent, that the noise is heard, in still weather, at some miles distance.

But of all places where this animal is to be found, it appears no where in such numbers as in the lakes of Frishehaff and Curischaff, near the city of Pillau. In the rivers also that empty themselves into the Euxine sea, this fish is caught in great numbers, particularly at the mouth of the river Don. In all these places the fishermen regularly expect their arrival from the sea, and have their nets and salt ready prepared for their reception.

As the sturgeon is a harmless fish, and no way voracious, it is never caught by a bait in the ordinary manner of fishing, but always in nets. From the description given above of its mouth, it is not to be supposed that the sturgeon would swallow any hook capable of holding so large a bulk and so strong a swimmer. In fact, it never attempts to seize any

of the finny tribe, but lives by rooting at the bottom of the sea, where it makes insects and sea-plants its whole subsistence. From this quality of floundering at the bottom it has received its name; which comes from the German verb *floeren*, signifying to wallow in the mud. That it lives upon no large animals is obvious to all those who cut it open, where nothing is found in its stomach but a kind of slimy substance, which has induced some to think it lives only upon water and air. From hence there is a German proverb, which is applied to a man extremely temperate, when they say, he is as moderate as a sturgeon.

As the sturgeon is so temperate in its appetites, so is it also equally timid in its nature. There would be scarcely any method of taking it, did not its natural desire of propagation induce it to incur so great a variety of dangers. The smallest fish is alone sufficient to terrify a shoal of sturgeons; for, being unfurnished with any weapon of defence, they are obliged to trust to their swiftness and their caution for security. Like all animals that do not make war upon others, sturgeons live in society among themselves; rather for the purposes of pleasure than from any power of mutual protection. Gesner even asserts, that they are delighted with sounds of various kinds; and that he has seen them shoal together at the notes of a trumpet.

The usual time, as was said before, for the sturgeon to come up rivers to deposit its spawn, is about the beginning of summer, when the fishermen of all great rivers make a regular preparation for its reception. At Pillau, particularly, the shores are formed into districts, and allotted to companies of fishermen, some of which are rented for about three hundred pounds a year. The nets in which the sturgeon is caught are made of small cord, and placed across the mouth of the river; but in such a manner that, whether the tide ebbs or flows, the pouch of the net goes with the stream.—The sturgeon thus caught, while in the water, is one of the strongest fishes that swims, and often breaks the net to pieces that encloses it; but the instant it is raised, with its head above water, all its activity ceases; it is then a lifeless, spiritless lump, and suffers itself to be tamely dragged on shore. It has been found prudent, however, to draw it to shore gently; for if excited by any unnecessary violence, it has been found to break the fisherman's legs with a blow of its tail

The most experienced fishers, therefore, when they have drawn it to the brink, keep the head still elevated, which prevents its doing any mischief with the hinder part of the body: others, by a noose, fasten the head and the tail together; and thus, without immediately dispatching it, bring it to the market, if there be one near, or keep it till their number is completed for exportation.

The flesh of this animal, pickled, is very well known at all the tables of Europe; and is even more prized in England than in any of the countries where it is usually caught. The fishermen have two different methods of preparing it. The one is by cutting it in long pieces lengthwise, and, having salted them, by hanging them up in the sun to dry: the fish thus prepared is sold in all the countries of the Levant, and supplies the want of better provision. The other method, which is usually practised in Holland, and along the shores of the Baltic, is to cut the sturgeon crosswise, into short pieces, and put it in small barrels, with a pickle made of salt and saumure. This is the sturgeon which is sold in England; and of which great quantities came from the North, until we gave encouragement to the importation of it from North America. From thence we are very well supplied; but it is said, not with such good fish as those imported from the North of Europe.

A very great trade is also carried on with the roe of the sturgeon, preserved in a particular manner, and called Caviar: it is made from the roe of all kinds of sturgeon, but particularly the second. This is much more in request in other countries of Europe than with us. To all these high-relished meats, the appetite must be formed by degrees; and though formerly, even in England, it was very much in request at the politest tables, it is at present sunk entirely into disuse. It is still, however, a considerable merchandise among the Turks, Greeks, and Venetians. Caviar somewhat resembles soft soap in consistence; but it is of a brown, uniform colour, and is eaten as cheese with bread. The manner of making it is this: they take the spawn from the body of the sturgeon—for it is to be observed, the sturgeon differs from other cartilaginous fish, in that it has spawn like a cod, and not eggs like a ray. They take the spawn, I say, and freeing it from the small membranes that connect it together, they wash it with vinegar, and afterwards spread it to dry

upon a table ; they then put them into a vessel with salt, breaking the spawn with their hands, and not with a pestle ; this done, they put it into a canvass bag, letting the liquor drain from it ; lastly, they put it into a tub, with holes in the bottom, so that, if there be any moisture still remaining, it may run out : then it is pressed down, and covered up close for use.

But the Huso or Isinglass fish furnishes a still more valuable commodity. This fish is caught in great quantities in the Danube, from the month of October to January : it is seldom under fifty pounds weight, and often above four hundred : its flesh is soft, glutinous, and flabby ; but it is sometimes salted, which makes it better tasted, and then it turns red like salmon. It is for the commodity it furnishes that it is chiefly taken. Isinglass is of a whitish substance, inclining to yellow, done up into rolls, and so exported for use. It is very well known as serviceable, not only in medicine, but many arts. The varnisher, the wine-merchant, and even the clothier, know its uses ; and very great sums are yearly expended upon this single article of commerce. The manner of making it is this : they take the skin, the entrails, the fins, and the tail of this fish, and cut them into small pieces ; these are left to macerate in a sufficient quantity of warm water, and they are all boiled shortly after with a slow fire, until they are dissolved and reduced to a jelly ; this jelly is spread upon instruments made for the purpose, so, that drying, it assumes the form of parchment, and, when quite dry, it is then rolled into the form which we see in the shops.

This valuable commodity is principally furnished from Russia, where they prepare great quantities surprisingly cheap. Mr. Jackson, an ingenious countryman of our own, found out an obvious method of making a glue at home that answered all the purposes of isinglass ; but what with the trouble of making it, and perhaps the arts put in practice to undersell him, he was, as I am told, obliged to discontinue the improvement of his discovery. Indeed, it is a vain attempt to manufacture among ourselves those things which may be more naturally and cheaply supplied elsewhere. We have many trades that are unnaturally, if I may so express it, employed among us ; who furnish more laboriously those necessities with which other countries

could easily and cheaply supply us. It would be wiser to take what they can thus produce ; and to turn our artizans to the increase and manufacture of such productions as thrive more readily among us. Were, for instance, the number of hands that we have now employed in the manufacture of silk, turned to the increase of agriculture, it is probable that the increased quantity of corn thus produced, would be more than an equivalent for the diminution of national wealth in purchasing wrought silk from other countries.

CHAP. VI.

OF ANOMALOUS CARTILAGINOUS FISHES.

OF all others, the Cartilaginous class seems to abound with the greatest variety of ill-formed animals ; and, if philosophy could allow the expression, we might say, that the cartilaginous class was the class of monsters ; in fact, it exhibits a variety of shapeless beings, the deviations of which from the usual form of fishes are beyond the power of words to describe, and scarcely of the pencil to draw. In this class we have the Pipe Fish, that almost tapers to a thread, and the Sun Fish, that has the appearance of a bulky head, but the body cut off in the middle ; the Hippocampus, with a head somewhat like that of a horse, and the Water Bat, whose head can scarcely be distinguished from the body. In this class we find the Fishing Frog, which from its deformity some have called the Sea Devil ; the Chimæra, the Lump Fish, the Sea Porcupine, and the Sea Snail. Of all these the history is but little known ; and naturalists supply the place with description.

The Sun Fish sometimes grows to a very large size ; one taken near Plymouth was five hundred weight. In form it resembles a bream, or some deep fish cut off in the middle : the mouth is very small, and contains in each jaw two broad teeth, with sharp edges : the colour of the back is dusky and dappled, and the belly is of a silvery white. When boiled, it has been observed to turn to a glutinous jelly, and would most probably serve for all the purposes of isinglass, were it found in sufficient plenty.

The Fishing Frog in shape very much resembles a tadpole or young frog ; but then a tadpole of enormous size, for it

grows to above five feet long, and its mouth is sometimes a yard wide. Nothing can exceed its deformity. The head is much bigger than the whole body; the under jaw projects beyond the upper, and both are armed with rows of slender sharp teeth: the palate and the tongue are furnished with teeth in like manner: the eyes are placed on the top of the head, and are encompassed with prickles: immediately above the nose, are two long beards or filaments, small in the beginning, but thicker at the end, and round: these, as it is said, answer a very singular purpose; for being made somewhat resembling a fishing-line, it is asserted, that the animal converts them to the purposes of fishing. With these extended, as Pliny asserts, the fishing frog hides in muddy waters, and leaves nothing but the beards to be seen: the curiosity of the smaller fish brings them to view these filaments, and their hunger induces them to seize the bait; upon which the animal in ambush instantly draws in its filaments, with the little fish that had taken the bait, and devours it without mercy. This story, though apparently improbable, has found credit among some of our best naturalists; but what induces me to doubt the fact is, that there is another species of this animal, that has no beards, which it would not want if they were necessary to the existence of the kind. Rondeletius informs us, that if we take out the bowels, the body will appear with a kind of transparence; and that if a lighted candle be placed within the body, as in a lantern, the whole has a very formidable appearance. The fishermen, however, have in general a great regard for this ugly fish, as it is an enemy to the dog-fish, the bodies of those fierce and voracious animals being often found in its stomach: whenever they take it, therefore, they always set it at liberty.

The Lump Fish is trifling in size, compared to the former: its length is but sixteen inches, and its weight about four pounds; the shape of the body is like that of a bream, deep, and it swims edgeways; the back is sharp and elevated, and the belly flat; the lips, mouth, and tongue of this animal, are of a deep red; the whole skin is rough, with bony knobs; the largest row is along the ridge of the back; the belly is of a bright crimson colour: but what makes the chief singularity in this fish, is an oval aperture in the belly, surrounded with a fleshy soft substance that seems bearded all

round ; by means of this part it adheres with vast force to any thing it pleases. If flung into a pail of water, it will stick so close to the bottom, that on taking the fish by the tail, one may lift up pail and all, though it holds several gallons of water. Great numbers of these fish are found along the coasts of Greenland in the beginning of summer, where they resort to spawn. Their roe is remarkably large, and the Greenlanders boil it to a pulp for eating. They are extremely fat, but not admired in England, being both flabby and insipid.

The Sea Snail takes its name from the soft and unctuous texture of its body, resembling the snail upon land. It is almost transparent, and soon dissolves and melts away. It is but a little animal, being not above five inches long. The colour, when fresh taken, is of a pale brown, the shape of the body round, and the back fin reaches all the way from the head to the tail. Beneath the throat is a round depression, of a whitish colour, surrounded by twelve brown spots, placed in a circle. It is taken in England at the mouth of rivers, four or five miles distant from the sea.

The body of the Pipe Fish, in the thickest part, is not thicker than a swan-quill, while it is above sixteen inches long. This is angular, but the angles being not very sharp, they are not discernible until the fish is dried. Its general colour is an olive-brown, marked with numbers of bluish lines, pointing from the back to the belly. It is viviparous ; for on crushing one that was just taken, hundreds of very minute young ones were observed to crawl about.

The Hippocampus, which, from the form of its head, some call the Seahorse, never exceeds nine inches in length. It is about as thick as a man's thumb, and the body is said, while alive, to have hair on the fore-part, which falls off when it is dead. The snout is a sort of a tube with a hole at the bottom, to which there is a cover, which the animal can open and shut at pleasure. Behind the eyes there are two fins which look like ears ; and above them are two holes which serve for respiration. The whole body seems to be composed of cartilaginous rings, on the intermediate membranes of which several small prickles are placed. It is found in the Mediterranean, and also in the Western Ocean ; and, upon the whole, more resembles a great caterpillar than a fish. The ancients considered it as extremely venomous ; probably induced by its peculiar figure.

From these harmless animals, covered with a slight coat of mail, we may proceed to others, more thickly defended, and more formidably armed, whose exact station in the scale of fishes is not yet ascertained. While Linnæus ranks them among the cartilaginous kinds, a later naturalist places them among the spinous class. With which tribe they most agree, succeeding observations must determine. At present we seem better acquainted with their figure than their history: their deformity is obvious; and the venomous nature of the greatest number, has been confirmed by fatal experience.—This circumstance, as well as the happy distance at which they are placed from us, being all found in the Oriental or American seas, may have prevented a more critical inquiry; so that we know but little of the nature of their malignity, and still less of their pursuits and enmities in the deep.

In the first of this tribe we may place the Sea Orb, which is almost round, has a mouth like a frog, and is from seven inches to two feet long. Like the porcupine, from whence it sometimes takes its name, being also called the Sea Porcupine, it is covered over with long thorns or prickles, which point on every side; and, when the animal is enraged, it can blow up its body as round as a bladder. Of this extraordinary creature there are many kinds: some threatening only with spines, as the Sea Hedgehog; others defended with a bony helmet that covers the head, as the Ostracion; others with a coat of mail from the head to the tail, where it terminates in a point, as the Centriscus; and others still armed offensively and defensively with bones and spines, as the Shield Orb.

Of these scarcely one is without its peculiar weapon of offence. The centriscus wounds with its spine; the ostracion poisons with its venom; the orb is impregnable, and is absolutely poisonous if eaten. Indeed, their figure is not such as would tempt one to make the experiment; and the natives of those countries where they are found, are careful to inform foreigners of their danger: yet a certain sailor at the Cape of Good Hope, not believing what the Dutch told him concerning their venom, was resolved to make the experiment, and break through a prejudice, which, he supposed, was founded on the animal's deformity. He tried, and ate one; but his rashness cost him his life; he instantly fell sick, and died a few days after.

These frightful animals are of different sizes ; some not bigger than a foot-ball, and others as large as a bushel. They almost all flatten and erect their spines at pleasure, and increase the terrors of their appearance in proportion to the approach of danger. At first they seem more inoffensive ; their body oblong, with all their weapons pointing towards the tail ; but, upon being provoked or alarmed, the body, that before seemed small, swells to the view ; the animal visibly grows rounder and larger, and all its prickles stand upright, and threaten the invader on every side. The Americans often amuse themselves with the barren pleasure of catching these frightful creatures by a line and hook, baited with a piece of sea-crab. The animal approaches the bait with its spines flattened ; but when hooked and stopped by the line, straight all its spines are erected ; the whole body being armed in such a manner at all points, that it is impossible to lay hold of it on any part. For this reason it is dragged to some distance from the water, and there it quickly expires. In the middle of the belly of all these there is a sort of bag or bladder filled with air, and by the inflation of which the animal swells itself in the manner already mentioned.

In describing the deformed animals of this class, one is sometimes at a loss whether it be a fish or an insect that lies before him. Thus the hippocampus and the pipe-fish bear a strong resemblance to the caterpillar and the worm ; while the lesser orb bears some likeness to the class of sea-eggs to be described after. I will conclude this account of cartilaginous fishes with the description of an animal which I would scarcely call a fish, but that Father Labat dignifies it with the name. Indeed, this class teems with such a number of odd-shaped animals, that one is prompted to rank every thing extraordinary of the finny species among the number ; but besides, Labat says, its bones are cartilaginous, and that may entitle it to a place here.

The animal I mean is the Galley Fish, which Linnæus degrades into the insect tribe, under the title of *the Medusa*, but which I choose to place in this tribe, from its habits, that are somewhat similar. To the eye of an unmindful spectator, this fish seems a transparent bubble swimming on the surface of the sea, or like a bladder variously and beautifully painted with vivid colours, where red and violet

predominate, as variously opposed to the beams of the sun. It is, however, an actual fish; the body of which is composed of cartilages, and a very thin skin filled with air, which thus keeps the animal floating on the surface, as the waves and the winds happen to drive. Sometimes it is seen thrown on the shore by one wave, and again washed back into the sea by another. Persons who happened to be walking along the shore often happen to tread upon these animals; and the bursting of their body yields a report like that when one treads upon the swim of a fish. It has eight broad feet, with which it swims, or which it expands to catch the air as with a sail. It fastens itself to whatever it meets by means of its legs, which have an adhesive quality. Whether they move when on shore, Labat could never perceive, though he did every thing to make them stir; he only saw that it strongly adhered to whatever substances he applied it. It is very common in America, and grows to the size of a goose-egg, or somewhat more. It is perpetually seen floating; and no efforts that are used to hurt it can sink it to the bottom. All that appears above water is a bladder clear and transparent as glass, and shining with the most beautiful colours of the rainbow. Beneath, in the water, are four of the feet already mentioned, that serve as oars, while the other four are expanded above to sail with. But what is most remarkable in this extraordinary creature, is the violent pungency of the slimy substance with which its legs are smeared. If the smallest quantity but touch the skin, so caustic is its quality, that it burns it like hot oil dropped on the part affected. The pain is worst in the heat of the day, but ceases in the cool of the evening. It is from feeding on these that he thinks the poisonous quality contracted by some West Indian fish may be accounted for. It is certain these animals are extremely common along all the coasts in the Gulf of Mexico; and whenever the shore is covered with them in an unusual manner, it is considered as a certain forerunner of a storm.

BOOK III.

OF SPINOUS FISHES.

CHAP. I.

THE DIVISION OF SPINOUS FISHES.

THE third general division of fishes is into that of the spinous or bony kind. These are obviously distinguished from the rest by having a complete bony covering to their gills; by their being furnished with no other method of breathing but gills only; by their bones, which are sharp and thorny; and their tails, which are placed in a situation perpendicular to the body. This is that class which alone our later naturalists are willing to admit as fishes. The cetaceous class, with them are but beasts that have taken up their abode in the ocean; the cartilaginous class are an amphibious band, that are but half denizens of that element: it is fishes of the spinous kind that really deserve the appellation.

This distinction the generality of mankind will hardly allow; but whatever be the justice of this preference in favour of the spinous class, it is certain that the cetaceous and cartilaginous classes bear no proportion to them in number. Of the spinous classes are already known above four hundred species; so that the numbers of the former are trifling in comparison, and make not above a fifth part of the finny creation.

From the great variety in this class, it is obvious how difficult a task it must have been to describe or remember even a part of what it contains. When six hundred different sorts of animals offer themselves to consideration, the mind is bewildered in the multiplicity of objects that all lay some claim to its attention. To obviate this confusion, systems have been devised, which, throwing several fishes

that agree in many particulars into one group, and thus uniting all into so many particular bodies, the mind that was incapable of separately considering each, is enabled to comprehend all, when thus offered in larger masses to its consideration.

Indeed, of all the beings in animated nature, fishes most demand a systematical arrangement. Quadrupeds are but few, and can be all known; birds, from their seldom varying in their size, can be very tolerably distinguished without system; but among fishes, which no size can discriminate, where the animal ten inches, and the animal ten feet long, is entirely the same, there must be some other criterion by which they are to be distinguished; something that gives precision to our ideas of the animal whose history we desire to know.

Of the real history of fishes, very little is yet known; but of very many we have full and sufficient accounts, as to their external form. It would be unpardonable, therefore, in a history of these animals, not to give the little we do know; and, at least, arrange our forces, though we cannot tell their destination. In this art of arrangement, Artedi and Linnæus have long been conspicuous: they have both taken a view of the animal's form in different lights; and, from the parts which most struck them, have founded their respective systems.

Artedi, who was foremost, perceiving that some fishes had hard prickly fins, as the pike; that others had soft pliant ones, as the herring; and that others still wanted that particular fin by which the gills are opened and shut, as the eel, made out a system from these varieties. Linnæus, on the other hand, rejecting this system, which he found liable to too many exceptions, considered the fins, not with regard to their substance, but their position. The ventral fins seem to be the great object of his system; he considers them in fishes supplying the same offices as feet in quadrupeds; and from their total absence, or from their being situated nearer the head or the tail, in different fishes, he takes the differences of his system.

These arrangements, which are totally arbitrary, and which are rather a method than a science, are always fluctuating; and the last is generally preferred to that which went before. There has lately appeared, however, a sys-

tem composed by Mr. Gouan, of Montpellier, that deserves applause for more than its novelty. It appears to me the best arrangement of this kind that ever was made; and in it the divisions are not only precisely systematical, but, in some measure, adopted by Nature itself. This learned Frenchman has united the systems of Artedi and Linnæus together; and, by bringing one to correct the other, has made out a number of tribes that are marked with the outmost precision. A part of his system, however, we have already gone through in the cartilaginous, or, as he calls a part of them, the *branchiostegous* tribe of fishes. In the arrangement of these, I have followed Linnæus, as the number of them was but small, and his method simple. But in that which is more properly called the *spinous class of fishes*, I will follow Mr. Gouan's system; the terms of which, as well as of all the former systems, require some explanation. I do not love to multiply the technical terms of a science; but it often happens that names, by being long used, are as necessary to be known as the science itself.

If we consider the substance of the fin of a fish, we shall find it composed, besides the skin, either of straight, hard, pointed, bony prickles or spines, as in the pike; or of soft, crooked, or forked bones, or cartilages, as in the herring.—The fish that have bony prickly fins, are called *prickly-finned fish*; the latter, that have soft, or cartilaginous fins, are called *soft-finned fish*. The prickly-finned fish have received the Greek new-formed name of *Acanthopterigii*; the soft-finned fish have likewise their barbarous Greek name of *Malacopterigii*. Thus far Artedi has supplied Mr. Gouan with names and divisions. All spinous fish are divided into prickly-finned fish and soft-finned fish.

Again, Linnæus has taught him to remark the situation of the fins; for the ventral, or belly-fins, which are those particularly to be remarked, are either wholly wanting, as in the eel, and then the fish is called *Apodal*, (a Greek word, signifying without feet;) or the ventral-fins are placed more forward than the pectoral-fins, as in the haddock, and then the animal is a *Jugular-fish*; or the ventral-fins are placed directly under the pectoral-fins, as in the father-lasher, and then it is called a *Thoracic-fish*; or, lastly, the ventral-fins are placed nearer the tail than the pectoral-fins, as in the minnow, and then it is an *Abdominal-fish*.

Possessed of these distributions, the French naturalist mixes and unites them into two grand divisions. All the prickly-finned fish make one general division; all the soft-finned fish another. These first are distinguished from each other, as being either *apodal*, *jugular*, *thoracic*, or *abdominal*. Thus there are prickly-finned *apodal* fishes; prickly-finned *jugular* fishes; prickly-finned *thoracic* fishes; and prickly-finned *abdominal* fishes. On the other hand, the soft-finned fishes fall under a similar distribution, and make the other general division. Thus there are soft-finned *apodal* fishes, soft-finned *jugular* fishes, soft-finned *thoracic* fishes, and soft-finned *abdominal* fishes. These general characters are strongly marked, and easily remembered. It only remains, therefore, to divide these into such tribes as are most strongly marked by Nature; and to give the distinct characters of each to form a complete system with great simplicity. This Mr. Gouan has done; and the tribes into which he has distributed each of these divisions, exactly amount to fifty. Thus the reader, who can contain in his memory the characteristic marks of fifty kinds, will have a tolerable idea of the form of every kind of spinous fish. I say, of the form; for as to the history and nature of the animal itself, that can only be obtained by experience and information.

SECT. I.

PRICKLY-FINNED FISHES:

Prickly-finned Apodal Fish.

1. *The Trichurus.* The body of a sword-form; the head oblong; the teeth sword-like, bearded near the points; the fore-teeth largest; the fin that covers the gills with seven spines; the tail ending in a point without fins; an inhabitant near the Oriental and American shores; of a silvery white; frequently leaping into the fishermen's boats in China.

2. *The Xiphias, or Sword-fish.* The body round; the head long; the upper-jaw terminating by a long beak, in form of a sword; the fin that covers the gills with eight spines; an inhabitant of Europe; an enemy to the whale.

3. The *Ophidium* or *Gilt-head*. The body sword-like; the head blunt; the fin covering the gills with seven spines; the opening of the mouth side-ways; the fins of the back, the anus, and the tail, all joining together; the most beautiful of all fishes, covered over with green, gold, and silver; it is by sailors called the dolphin, and gives chase to the flying-fish.

Prickly-finned Jugular Fish.

4. The *Trachinus* or *Weever*. The body oblong; the head obtuse; the bones covering the gills jagged at the bottom; the fins covering the gills with six spines; the anus near the breast; buries itself in the sands, leaving only its nose out; and if trod upon, immediately strikes with the spines that form its dorsal fins, which are venomous and dangerous.

5. The *Uranoscopus*. The body wedge-like; the head almost round, and larger than the body; the mouth flat; the eyes on the top of the head; the fin covering the gills with six spines; the anus in the middle of the body; an inhabitant of the Mediterranean Sea.

6. The *Callyonymus* or *Dragonet*. The body almost wedge-like; the head broad, and larger than the body; the mouth even with the body; the bony covering of the gills close shut; the opening to the gills behind the head; the fin covering the gills with six spines; an inhabitant of the Atlantic Ocean.

7. The *Blennius* or *Blenny*. The body oblong; the head obtusely bevel; the teeth a single range; the fin covering the gills with six spines; the ventral-fins have two small blunt bones in each; a species of this animal is viviparous.

Prickly-finned Thoracic Fish.

8. The *Gobius* or *Gudgeon*. The body round and oblong; the head with two little holes between the eyes, one before the other; the fin covering the gills with four spines; the ventral-fins joined together.

9. The *Cepola*. The body sword-like; the head blunt; the mouth flat; the fin covering the gill with six spines; the fins distinct; an inhabitant of the Mediterranean Sea.

10. The *Coryphæna* or *Razor-fish*. The body wedge-like; the head very bevel; the fin covering the gills with five spines.

11. The *Scomber* or *Mackarel*. The body oblong; the line running down the side zigzagged towards the tail; the head sharp and small; the fins covering the gills with seven spines; several false fins towards the tail.

12. The *Labrus* or *Wrasse*. The body oval; the head middling; the lips doubled inward; both cutting and grinding teeth; the covers of the gills scaly; the fin covering the gills with five spines; the pectoral fins pointed.

13. The *Sparus* or *Sea-bream*. The body oblong; the head middling; the lips not inverted; the teeth cutting and grinding; the cover of the gills scaly; the fins covering the gills with five rays; the pectoral fins pointed.

14. The *Chatodon* or *Cat-fish*. The body oblong; the head small; the teeth slender and bending; the fin covering the gills with three to six spines; the fins of the back and anus scaly.

15. The *Sciæna*. The body nearly elliptical; the head bevel, the covers of the fins scaly; the fin covering the gills with six rays; the fins of the back jagged, and hidden in a furrow in the back.

16. The *Perch*. The body oblong; the head bevel; the covers of the gills scaly and toothed; the fin covering the gills with seven spines; the fins in some jagged.

17. The *Scorpena* or *Father-lasher*. The body oblong; the head great, with beards; the covers of the gills armed with prickles; the fin covering the gills with seven spines.

18. The *Mullus* or *Surmulet*. The body slender; the head almost four-cornered; the fin covering the gills with three spines; some of these have beards; a fish highly prized by the Romans, and still considered as a very great delicacy.

19. The *Trigla* or the *Gurnard*. The body slender; the head nearly four-cornered, and covered with a bony coat, the fin covering the gills with seven spines; the pectoral and ventral fins, strengthened with additional muscles and bones, and very large for the animal's size.

20. The *Cottus* or *Bull-head*. The body wedge-like; the head flat and broader than the body; the fin covering the gills with six spines; the head furnished with prickles, knobs, and beards.

21. The *Zeus* or *Doree*. The body oblong; the head large, bevel; the fin covering the gills with seven rays; the fins jagged; the upper-jaw with a loose floating skin depending into the mouth.

22. The *Thrachipterus* or *Sabra*. The body sword-like; the head bevel; the fin covering the gills with six spines; the lateral line straight; the scales in a single order; a loose skin in both the jaws.

23. The *Gasterosteus* or *Stickleback*. The body broadest towards the tail; the head oblong; the fin covering the gills with three, six, or seven spines; prickles starting backward before the back fins and the fins of the anus.

Prickly-finned Abdominal Fish.

24. The *Silurus* or *Sheath-fish*. The body oblong; the head large; the fin covering the gills from four to fourteen spines; the leading bones or spines in the back and pectoral fins toothed.

25. The *Mugil* or *Mullet*. The body oblong; the head almost conical; the upper-jaw with a furrow, which receives the prominence of the under; the fin covering the gills with seven rays.

26. The *Polypemus*. The body oblong; the head with a beak; the fin covering the gills with from five to seven spines; the bones that move the pectoral fins not articulated to those fins.

27. The *Teuthys*. The body almost elliptical; the head abruptly shortened; the fin covering the gills with five rays; the teeth in a single row, close, strong, and even.

28. The *Elops* or *Sea-Serpent*. The body slender; the head large; the fin covering the gills double, with thirty spines, and armed externally with five bones resembling teeth.

SECT. II.

SOFT-FINNED FISHES.

Soft-finned Apodal Fish.

29. The *Muraena* or *Eel*. The body round and slender; the head terminating in a beak; the fin covering the gills with ten rays; the opening to the gills pipe-fashion, placed near the pectoral fins; the fins of the back, the anus, and the tail, united in one.

30. The *Gymnotus* or *Carapo*. The body roundest on the back, like the blade of a knife; the head small; the fin covering the gills with five rays; the back without a fin; two beards or filaments from the upper lip; an inhabitant of Brazil.

31. The *Anarhicas* or *Wolf-fish*. The body roundish and slender; the head large and blunt; the fore-teeth above and below conical; the grinding teeth and those in the palate round; the fin covering the gill has seven rays.

32. The *Stromateus*. The body oblong; the head small; the teeth moderately sharp; the fin covering the gills with five or six rays.

33. The *Ammodytes* or *Launce*. The body slender and roundish; the head terminated by a beak; the teeth of a hair-like fineness; the fin covering the gills with seven rays.

Soft-finned Jugular Fish.

34. The *Lepadogaster*. The body wedge-like; the head oblong, forwarder than the body, flattish, the beak resembling that of a duck; the pectoral fins double, two on each side; the ventral-fins joined together; a kind of bony breast-plate between the pectoral fins; the fin covering the gills with five rays; the opening to the gills pipe-fashion.

35. The *Gadus* or *Cod-fish*. The body oblong; the head wedge-like; the fin covering the gills with seven rays; several back and anal fins.

Soft-finned Thoracic Fish.

36. The *Pleuronectes* or *Flat-fish*. The body elliptical; the head small; both eyes on one side of the head; the fin covering the gills with from four to seven rays.

37. The *Echineis* or *Sucking-fish*. The body almost wedge-like, moderately round; the head broader than the body; the fin covering the gills with ten rays; an oval breast-plate, streaked in form of a ladder, toothed.

38. The *Lipidopus* or *Garter-fish*. The body sword-like; the head lengthened out; the fins covering the gills with seven rays; three scales only on the whole body; two in the place of the ventral fins; the third from that of the anus.

Soft-finned Abdominal Fish.

39. The *Loricaria*. The body crusted over; the head broad with a beak; no teeth; the fin covering the gills with six rays.

40. The *Atherina* or *Atherine*. The body oblong; the head of a middling size; the lips indented; the fin covering the gills with six rays; the line on the sides resembling a silver band.

41. The *Salmo* or *Salmon*. The body oblong; the head a little sharp; the fin covering the gills from four to ten rays; the last fin on the back, without its correspondent muscles, fat.

42. The *Fistularia*. The body angular, in form of a spindle; the head pipe-fashion, with a beak; the fin covering the gills with seven rays; the under jaw covering the upper.

43. The *Esox* or *Pike*. The body round; the head with a beak; the under jaw pierced longitudinally with small holes; the fin covering the gills with from seven to twelve rays.

44. The *Argentina* or *Argentine*. The body a little round and slender; the head with a beak, broader than the body; the fin covering the gills with eight rays; a spurious back-fin.

45. The *Clupea* or *Herring*. The body a little oblong; the head with a small beak; the fin covering the gills with eight rays.

46. The *Exocetus* or *Flying-fish*. The body oblong; the head almost three-cornered; the fin covering the gills with seven rays; the pectoral fins placed high, and as long as the whole body; the back-fin at the extremity of the back.

47. The *Cyprinus* or *Carp*. The body elongated, almost

round; the head with a small beak; the hinder part of the bone covering the gills, marked with a crescent; the fin covering the gills with three rays.

48. The *Cobitis* or *Loach*. The body oblong; almost equally broad throughout; the head small, a little elongated; the eyes in the hinder part of the head; the fin covering the gills from four to six rays; the covers of the gills closed below.

49. The *Amia* or *Bonito*. The body round and slender; the head, forehead, and breast, without skin; the fin covering the gills with twelve rays; two beards from the nose.

50. The *Mormyrus*. The body oblong; the head elongated; the fin covering the gills with a single ray; the opening to the gills is linear, and has no bone covering them.

Such is the system of Mr. Gouan; by reducing to which any fish that offers, we can know its rank, its affinities, and partly its anatomy, all which make a considerable part in its natural history. But to shew the use of this system still more apparently, suppose I meet with a fish, the name to me unknown, of which I desire to know something more. The way is first to see whether it be a cartilaginous fish, which may be known by its wanting fins to open and shut the gills, which the cartilaginous kinds are wholly without. If I find that it has them, then it is a spinous fish; and in order to know its kind, I examine its fins, whether they be prickly or soft; I find them soft; it is therefore to be ranked among the soft-finned fishes. I then examine its ventral or belly fins, and finding that the fish has them, I look for their situation, and find they lie nearer to the tail than the pectoral fins. By this I find the animal to be a soft-finned abdominal fish. Then, to know which of the kinds of these fishes it is, I examine its figure and the shape of its head: I find the body rather oblong; the head with a small beak; the lower jaw like a saw; the fin covering the gills with eight rays. This animal must, therefore, be the herring, or one of that family, such as the pilchard, the sprat, the shad, or the anchovy. To give another instance: upon examining the fins of a fish to me unknown, I find them prickly; I then look for the situation of the ventral fins, I find them entirely wanting; this then must be a prickly-

finned apodal fish. Of this kind there are but three: and by comparing the fish with the description, I find it either of the trichurus kind, the sword-fish, or the gilt-head. Upon examining also its internal structure, I shall find a very great similitude between my fish and that placed at the head of the family.

CHAP. II.

OF SPINOUS FISHES IN GENERAL.

HAVING given a method by which Spinous Fishes may be distinguished from each other, the history of each in particular might naturally be expected to follow; but such a distinct account of each would be very disgusting, from the unavoidable uniformity of every description. The history of any one of this class very much resembles that of all the rest; they breathe air and water through the gills: they live by rapine, each devouring such animals as its mouth is capable of admitting; and they propagate, not by bringing forth their young alive, as in the cetaceous tribes, nor by distinct eggs, as in the generality of the cartilaginous tribes, but by spawn, or peas, as they are generally called, which they produce by hundreds of thousands. These are the leading marks that run through their whole history, and which have so much swelled books with tiresome repetition.

It will be sufficient therefore to draw this numerous class into one point of view, and to mark how they differ from the former classes; and what they possess peculiarly striking, so as to distinguish them from each other. The first object that presents itself, and that by which they differ from all others, are the bones. These, when examined but slightly, appear to be entirely solid; yet, when viewed more closely, every bone will be found hollow, and filled with a substance less rancid and oily than marrow. These bones are very numerous, and pointed; and, as in quadrupeds, are the props or stays to which the muscles are fixed which move the different parts of the body.

The number of bones in all spinous fishes of the same kind, is always the same. It is a vulgar way of speaking to say, that fishes are at some seasons more bony than at others;

but this scarcely requires contradiction. It is true indeed, that fish are at some seasons much fatter than at others ; so that the quantity of the flesh being diminished, and that of the bones remaining the same, they appear to increase in number, as they actually bear a greater proportion.

All fish of the same kind, as was said, have the same number of bones : the skeleton of a fish, however irregularly the bones may fall in our way at table, has its members very regularly disposed ; and every bone has its fixed place, with as much precision as we find in the orders of a regular fabric. But then spinous fish differ in the number of bones according to the species : for some have a greater number of fins by which they move in the water. The number in each is always in proportion to the number and size of these fins : for every fish has a regular apparatus of bones and muscles, by which the fins are moved ; and all those fish, where they are numerous or large, must, of consequence, be considerably bony. Indeed, in the larger fish, the quantity of flesh is so much, and the bones themselves are so large, that they are easily seen and separated ; but in the smaller kinds with many fins, the bones are as numerous as in the great ; yet being so very minute, they lurk almost in every part of the flesh, and are dangerous as well as troublesome to be eaten. In a word, those fish which are large, fat, and have few fins, are found to be the least bony ; those which are small, lean, and have many fins, are the most bony of all others. Thus, for instance, a roach appears more bony than a carp, because it is leaner and smaller ; and it is actually more bony than an eel, because it has a greater number of fins.

As the spinous fish partake less of the quadruped in their formation than any others, so they can bear to live out of their own element a shorter time. In general, when taken out of the water they testify their change by panting more violently and at closer intervals, the thin air not furnishing their gills the proper play ; and in a few minutes they expire. Some indeed are more vivacious in air than others ; the eel will live several hours out of water ; and the carp has been known to be fattened in a damp cellar. The method is by placing it in a net well wrapped up in wet moss, the mouth only out, and then hung up in a vault. The fish is fed with white bread and milk ; and the net now and then plunged into the water. The animal, thus

managed, has been known not only to live for a fortnight, but to grow exceedingly fat, and of a superior flavour. From this it would seem that the want of moisture in the gills is the chief cause of the death of these animals; and could that be supplied, their lives might be prolonged in the air, almost as well as in their own element.

Yet it is impossible to account for the different operations of the same element, upon animals that, to appearance, have the same conformation. To some fishes, bred in the sea, fresh water is immediate destruction: on the other hand, some fishes, that live in our lakes and ponds, cannot bear the salt water. Whence this difference can arise, is not easily to be accounted for. The saline quality of the water cannot properly be given as the cause; since no fishes imbibe any of the sea's saltness with their food, or in respiration. The flesh of all fishes is equally fresh, both in the river, and in the saltiest depths of the ocean; the salt of the element in which they live no way mixing with their constitution. Whence then is it that animals will live only there, and will quickly expire when carried into fresh water? It may probably arise from the superior weight of the seawater; as from the great quantity of salt dissolved in its composition, it is much heavier than fresh water, so it is probable it lies with greater force upon the organs of respiration, and gives them their proper and necessary play: on the other hand, those fish which are used only to fresh water, cannot bear the weight of the saline fluid, and expire in a manner suffocated in the grossness of the strange element.

But though there are some tribes that live only in the sea, and others only in fresh water, yet there are some whose organs are equally adapted to either element; and that spend a part of their season in one, and a part in the other. Thus the salmon, the shad, the smelt, and the flounder; annually quit their native ocean, and come up our rivers to deposit their spawn. This seems the most important business of their lives; and there is no danger which they will not encounter, even to the surmounting precipices, to find a proper place for the deposition of their future offspring. The salmon, upon these occasions, is seen to ascend rivers five hundred miles from the sea; and to brave not only the danger of various enemies, but also to spring

up cataracts as high as a house. As soon as they come to the bottom of the torrent, they seem disappointed to meet the obstruction, and swim some paces back: they then take a view of the danger that lies before them, survey it motionless for some minutes; advance, and again retreat; till at last summoning up all their force, they take a leap from the bottom, their body straight, and strongly in motion; and thus most frequently clear every obstruction. It sometimes happens, however, that they want strength to make the leap; and then, in our fisheries, they are taken in their descent. But this is one of the smallest dangers that attend these adventuring animals in their progress: numberless are the methods of taking them; as well by the hook, as by nets, baskets, and other inventions, which it is not our business here to describe. Their capture makes, in several countries, a great article of commerce; and being cured in several different manners, either by salting, pickling, or drying, they are sent to all the markets of Europe.

As these mount up the rivers to deposit their spawn, others, particularly the eel, descend the fresh water stream, as Redi assures us, to bring forth their young in the sea. About the month of August, annually, these animals take the opportunity of the most obscure nights, and when the rivers are flooded by accidental rains seek the ocean. When they have reached the sea, and produced their young, for they are viviparous, they again ascend the stream, at different times, as opportunity offers, or as the season is favourable or tempestuous. Their passage begins usually about the end of January, and continues till towards the end of May, when they are taken in the river Arno by millions, and so small that a thousand of them goes to a pound. There is nothing more certain than that they descend in our own rivers after floods, in great abundance, and are thus caught in nets, to very great advantage. They are possessed also of a power of climbing over any obstacle; for, by applying their glutinous and slimy bodies to the surface of the object they desire to surmount, they can thus creep up locks, weirs, and every thing that would prevent their ascending the current of the stream.

But the length of the voyage performed by these fishes, is sport, if compared to what is annually undertaken by some tribes, that constantly reside in the ocean. These are

known to take a course of three or four thousand miles in a season, serving for prey to whales, sharks, and the numerous flocks of water-fowl, that regularly wait to intercept their progress. These may be called fish of passage, and bear a strong analogy to birds of passage, both from their social disposition, and the immensity of their numbers. Of this kind are the cod, the haddock, the whiting, the mackarel, the tunny, the herring, and the pilchard. Other fish live in our vicinity, and reside on our coasts all the year round; or keep in the depths of the ocean, and are but seldom seen: but these, at stated seasons, visit their accustomed haunts with regular certainty, generally returning the same week in the succeeding year, and often the same day.

The stated returns, and the regular progress of these fish of passage, is one of the most extraordinary circumstances in all the History of Nature. What it is that impels them to such distant voyages; what directs their passage; and what supports them by the way; and what sometimes prompts them to quit, for several seasons, one shore for another, and then return to their accustomed harbour; are questions that Curiosity may ask, but Philosophy can hardly resolve. We must dismiss inquiry, satisfied with the certainty of the facts.

The cod seems to be the foremost of this wandering tribe, and is only found in our northern part of the world. This animal's chief place of resort is on the banks of Newfoundland, and the other sand-banks that lie off Cape Breton. That extensive flat seems to be no other than the broad top of a sea-mountain, extending for above five hundred miles long, and surrounded with a deeper sea. Hither the cod annually repair in numbers beyond the power of calculation, to feed on the quantity of worms that are to be found there in the sandy bottom. Here they are taken in such quantities, that they supply all Europe with a considerable share of provision. The English have stages erected all along the shore for salting and drying them; and the fishermen, who take them with the hook and line, which is their method, draw them in as fast as they can throw out. This immense capture, however, makes but a very small diminution, when compared to their numbers; and when their provision there is exhausted, or the season for propagation returns, they go off to the polar seas, where they deposit their roes in full security. From thence want of food forces them, as

soon as the first more southern seas are open, to repair southward for subsistence. Nor is this fish an unfrequent visitant upon our own shores: but the returns are not so regular, nor does the capture bear any proportion to that at Newfoundland.

The haddock, the whiting, and the mackarel, are thought by some to be driven upon our coasts rather by their fears than their appetites; and it is to the pursuit of the larger fishes we owe their welcome visits. It is much more probable, that they come for that food which is found in more plenty near the shore than farther out at sea. One thing is remarkable, that their migrations seem to be regularly conducted. The grand shoal of haddocks that comes periodically on the Yorkshire coasts, appeared there in a body on the tenth of December, 1766; and exactly on the same day in the following year. This shoal extended from the shore near three miles in breadth, and in length for more than forty. The limits of a shoal are precisely known; for if the fishermen put down their lines at the distance of more than three miles from shore, they catch nothing but dog-fish: a proof that the haddock is not there.

But of all migrating fish, the herring and the pilchard take the most adventurous voyages. Herrings are found in the greatest abundance in the highest northern latitudes. In those inaccessible seas, that are covered with ice for a great part of the year, the herring and pilchard find a quiet and sure retreat from all their numerous enemies: thither neither man, nor their still more destructive enemy, the fin-fish, or the cachalot, dares to pursue them. The quantity of insect food which those seas supply, is very great; whence, in that remote situation, defended by the icy rigour of the climate, they live at ease; and multiply beyond expression. From this most desirable retreat, Anderson supposes, they would never depart, but that their numbers render it necessary for them to migrate; and, as with bees from a hive, they are compelled to seek for other retreats.

For this reason, the great colony is seen to set out from the icy sea about the middle of winter; composed of numbers, that if all the men in the world were to be loaded with herrings, they would not carry the thousandth part away. But they no sooner leave their retreats, but millions of enemies

appear to thin their squadrons. The fin-fish and the cachalot swallow barrels at a yawn; the porpoise, the grampus, the shark, and the whole numerous tribe of dog-fish, find them an easy prey, and desist from making war upon each other: but, still more, the unnumbered flocks of sea-fowl, that chiefly inhabit near the pole, watch the outset of their dangerous migration, and spread extensive ruin.

In this exigence the defenceless emigrants find no other safety but by crowding closer together, and leaving to the outmost bands the danger of being the first devoured; thus, like sheep when frightened, that always run together in a body, and each finding some protection in being but one of many that are equally liable to invasion, they are seen to separate into shoals, one body of which moves to the west, and pours down along the coasts of America, as far south as Carolina, and but seldom farther. In Chesapeak Bay, the annual inundation of these fish is so great, that they cover the shores in such quantities as to become a nuisance. Those that hold more to the east, and come down towards Europe, endeavour to save themselves from their merciless pursuers, by approaching the first shore they can find; and that which first offers in their descent, is the coast of Iceland, in the beginning of March. Upon their arrival on that coast, their phalanx, which has already suffered considerable diminutions, is, nevertheless, of amazing extent, depth, and closeness, covering an extent of shore as large as the island itself. The whole water seems alive; and is seen so black with them to a great distance, that the number seems inexhaustible. There the porpoise and the shark continue their depredations; and the birds devour what quantities they please. By these enemies the herrings are cooped up into so close a body, that a shovel, or any hollow vessel, put into the water, takes them up without farther trouble.

That body which comes upon our coasts, begins to appear off the Shetland Isles in April. These are the fore-runners of the grand shoal which descends in June; while its arrival is easily announced, by the number of its greedy attendants, the gannet, the gull, the shark, and the porpoise. When the main body is arrived, its breadth and depth is such as to alter the very appearance of the ocean. It is divided into distinct columns, of five or six miles in

length, and three or four broad; while the water before them curls up, as if forced out of its bed. Sometimes they sink for the space of ten or fifteen minutes, then rise again to the surface; and, in bright weather, reflect a variety of splendid colours, like a field bespangled with purple, gold, and azure. The fishermen are ready prepared to give them a proper reception; and, by nets made for the occasion, they take sometimes above two thousand barrels at a single draught.

From the Shetland Isles, another body of this great army, where it divides, goes off to the western coasts of Ireland, where they meet with a second necessity of dividing. The one takes to the Atlantic, where it is soon lost in that extensive ocean; the other passes into the Irish sea, and furnishes a very considerable capture to the natives.

In this manner, the herrings, expelled from their native seas, seek those bays and shores where they can find food; and the best defence against their unmerciful pursuers of the deep. In general, the most inhabited shores are the places where the larger animals of the deep are least fond of pursuing; and these are chosen by the herrings as an asylum from great dangers. Thus, along the coasts of Norway, the German shores, and the northern shores of France, these animals are found punctual in their visitations. In these different places they produce their young; which, when come to some degree of maturity, attend the general motions. After the destruction of such numbers, the quantity that attempts to return is but small; and Anderson doubts whether they ever return.

Such is the account given of the migration of these fishes, by one who, of all others, was best acquainted with their history; and yet many doubts arise, in every part of the migration. The most obvious which has been made is, that though such numbers perish in their descent from the north, yet, in comparison to those that survive, the account is trifling: and it is supposed, that of those taken by man, the proportion is not one to a million. Their regularly leaving the shore also at a stated time, would imply that they are not in these visits under the impulse of necessity. In fact, there seems one circumstance that shews these animals governed by a choice with respect to the shores they pitch upon; and not blindly drove from one shore to another.

What I mean is, their fixing upon some shores for several seasons, or, indeed, for several ages together; and, after having regularly visited them every year, then capriciously forsaking them, never more to return. The first great bank for herrings was along the shores of Norway. Before the year 1584, the number of ships from all parts of Europe that resorted to that shore exceeded some thousands. The quantity of herrings that were then assembled there was such, that a man who should put a spear in the water, as Olaus Magnus asserts, would see it stand on end, being prevented from falling. But soon after that period, these animals were seen to desert the Norway shores, and took up along the German coast, where the Hanse-Towns drove a very great trade by their capture and sale; but, for above a century, the herrings have, in a great measure, forsaken them; and their greatest colonies are seen in the British Channel, and upon the Irish shores. It is not easy to assign a cause for this seemingly capricious desertion: whether the number of their finny enemies, increasing along the northern coasts, may have terrified the herring tribe from their former places of resort; or, whether the quantity of food being greater in the British Channel, may not allure them thither; is not easy to determine.

The pilchard, which is a fish differing little from the herring, makes the coast of Cornwall its place of principal resort. Their arrival on that coast is soon proclaimed by their attendants the birds and the larger fishes; and the whole country prepare to take the advantage of this treasure, providentially thrown before them. The natives sometimes enclose a bay of several miles extent with their nets called *saines*. To direct them in their operations, there were some years ago (but I believe they are discontinued) several men placed on eminences near the shore, called *huers*, who, with brooms in their hands, gave signals where the nets were to be extended, and where the shoals of fishes lay: this they perceived by the colour of the water, which assumed a tincture from the shoals beneath. By these means, they sometimes take twelve or fifteen hundred barrels of pilchards at a draught; and they place them in heaps on the shore.—It often happens that the quantity caught exceeds the salt or the utensils for curing them; and they then are carried off to serve for the

purposes of manure. This fishery employs not only great numbers of men at sea, training them to naval affairs, but also numbers of women and children at land, in salting and curing the fish; in making boats, nets, ropes, and casks, for the purposes of taking or fitting them for sale. The poor are fed with the superfluity of the capture, the land is manured with the offals; the merchant finds the gain of commission, and honest commerce; the fisherman a comfortable subsistence from his toil. "Ships," says Dr. Borlase, "are often freighted hither with salt, and into foreign countries with the fish, carrying off at the same time a part of our tin. The usual produce of the number of hogsheads exported for ten years, from 1747 to 1756 inclusive, amounted to nearly thirty thousand hogsheads each year; every hogshead has amounted, upon an average, to the price of one pound thirteen shillings and threepence. Thus the money paid for pilchards exported, has annually amounted to near fifty thousand pounds."

Whence these infinite numbers are derived, still remains obscure; but it will increase our wonder to be told, that so small a fish as the stickleback, which is seldom above two inches long, and that one would think could easily find support in any water, is yet obliged to colonize, and leave its native fens in search of new habitations. Once every seventh or eighth year, amazing shoals of these appear in the river Welland, near Spalding, and come up the stream, forming one great column. They are supposed to be multitudes collected in some of the fens, till overcharged with numbers, they are periodically obliged to migrate. An idea may be had of their numbers, when we are informed, that a man, employed by a farmer to take them, for the purpose of manuring his grounds, has got, for a considerable time, four shillings a day by selling them at a halfpenny a bushel!

Thus we see the amazing propagation of fishes along our own coasts and rivers; but their numbers bear no proportion to the vast quantities found among the islands of the Indian ocean. The inhabitants of these countries are not under the necessity even of providing instruments for fishing; it is but going down to the shore, and there the fish are found in great numbers in the plashes that still

continue to have water in them. In some of these places the quantity is so great that they are left in shoals on the swamps, dried up by the sun; and their putrefaction contributes to render the country unhealthful.

This power of increasing in these animals, exceeds our ideas, as it would, in a very short time, outstrip all calculation. A single herring, if suffered to multiply unmolested and undiminished for twenty years, would shew a progeny greater in bulk than ten such globes as that we live upon. But happily the balance of Nature is exactly preserved; and their consumption is equal to their fecundity. For this reason we are to consider the porpoise, the shark, or the cod-fish, not in the light of plunderers and rivals, but of benefactors to mankind. Without their assistance, the sea would soon become overcharged with the burden of its own productions; and that element, which at present distributes health and plenty to the shore, would but load it with putrefaction.

In the propagation of all fish, some degree of warmth seems absolutely necessary, not only to their preservation, but to the advancement of their posterity. Their spawn is always deposited in those places where the sun beams may reach them, either at the bottom of shallow shores, or floating on the surface in deeper waters. A small degree of heat answers all the purposes of incubation, and the animal issues from the egg in its state of perfect formation, never to undergo any succeeding change.

Yet, still I have some doubts whether most fish come from the egg completely formed. We know that in all the frog tribe, and many of the lizard kind, they are produced from the egg in an imperfect form. The tadpole, or young frog, with its enormous head and slender tail, are well known; a species of the lizard also, which is excluded from the shell without legs, only acquires them by degrees, and not till after some time does it put off its serpent form. It is probable that some kinds of fish in like manner suffer a change; and though it be too inconsiderable to strike the fisherman or the inattentive spectator, yet it makes a very material difference to the naturalist, and would, perhaps, disarrange his most favourite systems. A slight alteration in the fins or bones that cover the gills would overturn the whole fabric of the most applauded ichthyologist; and yet,

as I observed, it is most probable that these minute alterations often take place.

As a proof of this, during the month of July, there appear, near Greenwich, innumerable shoals of small fishes, which are known to the Londoners by the name of White Bait. It is universally agreed that they are the young of some fish; they are never seen but at this time of the year, and never found to have any roe, a circumstance that proves their not being come to maturity. The quantity is amazing; and the fish that produces them in such numbers must be in plenty, though it is not yet known what that fish is, as they correspond with no other species whatever. They most resemble the smelt in form; and yet they want a fin, which that animal is never without. They cannot be the bleak, as they are never found in other rivers where the bleak breed in great abundance. It is most probable, therefore, that they are the young of some animal not yet come to their perfect form, and therefore reducible to no present system.

The time that spinous fishes continue in the pea is in proportion to the size of the kind. It is a rule, that chiefly holds through nature, that the larger the animals are, the longer they continue before exclusion. This I say holds generally through all nature, though it is not easy to assign a cause for so well known a truth. It may probably be, that as all large bodies take a longer time to grow hot than small ones, so the larger the egg, the longer influence of vital warmth it requires to reach through all its recesses, and to unfold the dormant springs that wait to be put into motion.

The manner in which the eggs of fishes are impregnated is wholly unknown. All that obviously offers is, that in ponds the sexes are often seen together among the long grass at the edge of the water; that there they seem to struggle; and that during this time they are in a state of suffering; they grow thin; they lose their appetite, and their flesh becomes flabby; the scales of some grow rough, and they lose their lustre. On the contrary, when the time of coupling is over, their appetite returns; they re-assume their natural agility, and their scales become brilliant and beautiful.

Although the usual way with spinous fishes is to produce by spawn; yet there are some, such as the eel and the blenny,

that are known to bring forth their young alive. Bowlker, who has written a treatise upon fishing, seems to determine the question relative to the viviparous production of eels, upon the authority of one or two credible witnesses. An eel, opened in the presence of several persons of credit, was found to have an infinite number of little creatures, closely wrapped up together in a lump, about the size of a nutmeg, which being put into a basin of water, soon separated, and swam about: yet still, whether these may not have been worms generated in the animal's body, remains a doubt; for there are scarcely any fishes that are not infested with worms in that manner.*

With respect to the growth of fishes, it is observed, that among carps, particularly the first year, they grow to about the size of the leaf of a willow-tree; at two years, they are about four inches long. They grow but one inch more the third season, which is five inches. Those of four years old are about six inches; and seven after the fifth. From that to eight years old they are found to be large in proportion to the goodness of the pond, from eight to twelve inches. With regard to sea-fish, the fishermen assure us, that a fish must be six years old before it is fit to be served up to table. They instance it in the growth of a mackarel. They assure us that those of a year old are as large as one's finger; that those of two years, are about twice that length; at three and four years, they are that small kind of mackarel that have neither milts nor roes; and between five and six, they are those full-grown fish that are served up to our tables. In the same manner, with regard to flat-fishes, they tell us, that the turbot and barbel at one year are about the size of a crown-piece; the second year, as large as the palm of one's hand; and at the fifth and sixth year, they are large enough to be served up to table. Thus it appears, that fish are a considerable time in coming to their full growth, and that they are a long time destroyed before it comes to their turn to be destroyers.†

* The Eel, it is known, is viviparous. It produces its numerous young during the decline of summer: these are very small at their first exclusion. This fish often wanders about meadows in search of snails and other food; and, according to Dr. Anderson, young eels will often migrate across the land, in great shoals, from one part of a river to another.

† *Traité des Pêches*, par Monsieur Duhamel. Sect. 3. p. 100.

All fish live upon each other in some state of their existence. Those with the largest mouths, attack and devour the larger kinds; those whose mouths are less, lie in wait for the smaller fry; and even these chiefly subsist upon spawn. Of those which live in the ocean, of the spinous kinds, the Dorado is the most voracious. This is chiefly found in the tropical climates; and is at once the most active and the most beautiful of the finny region. It is about six feet long; the back all over enannelled with spots of a blueish green and silver; the tail and fins of a gold colour; and all have a brilliancy of tint, that nothing but Nature's pencil can attain to: the eyes are placed on each side of the head, large and beautiful, surrounded with circles of shining gold. In the seas where they are found, these fish are always in motion, and play round ships in full sail with ease and security: for ever either pursuing or pursued, they are seen continually in a state of warfare; either defending themselves against the shark, or darting after the smaller fishes. Of all others, the Flying-fish most abounds in these seas; and as it is a small animal, seldom growing above the size of a herring, it is chiefly sought by the dorado. Nature has furnished each respectively with the powers of pursuit and evasion. The dorado being above six feet long, yet not thicker than a salmon, and furnished with a full complement of fins, cuts its way through the water with amazing rapidity: on the other hand, the flying-fish is furnished with two pair of fins longer than the body, and these also moved by a stronger set of muscles than any other. This equality of power seems to furnish one of the most entertaining spectacles those seas can exhibit. The efforts to seize on the one side, and the arts of escaping on the other, are perfectly amusing. The dorado is seen, upon this occasion, darting after its prey, which will not leave the water, while it has the advantage of swimming, in the beginning of the chase. But, like a hunted hare, being tired at last, it ther has recourse to another expedient for safety by flight. The long fins, which began to grow useless in the water, are now exerted in a different manner, and different direction, to that in which they were employed in swimming: by this means, the timid little animal rises from the water, and flutters over its surface for two or three hundred yards, till the muscles employed in moving the

wings are enfeebled by that particular manner of exertion. By this time, however, they have acquired a fresh power of renewing their efforts in the water, and the animal is capable of proceeding with some velocity by swimming: still, however, the active enemy keeps it in view, and drives it again from the deep; till, at length, the poor little creature is seen to dart to shorter distances, to flutter with greater effort, and to drop down at last into the mouth of its fierce pursuer. But not the dorado alone, all animated nature seems combined against this little fish, which seems possessed of double powers, only to be subject to greater dangers. For though it should escape from its enemies of the deep, yet the tropic bird, and the albatross are for ever upon the wing to seize it. Thus pursued in either element, it sometimes seeks refuge from a new enemy; and it is not unfrequent for whole shoals of them to fall on shipboard, where they furnish man with an object of useless curiosity.

The warfare in fresh water is not carried on with such destructive activity; nor are the inhabitants of that element so numerous. It would seem that there is something more favourable to the fecundity of fishes in the ocean than in an element less impregnated with salt. It has been the opinion of some philosophers that all fish are natives of that great reservoir; and that only colonies have been sent up rivers, either through accident, or the necessity of procuring subsistence. They have been led to this opinion by the superior fecundity of sea-fish, which breed twenty to one; as well as by their superiority in strength and size, over those of the same kind found in lakes and rivers. This is a matter too remotely speculative to be worth pursuing; but certain it is that, in fresh water, fishes seem to abate much of their courage and rapacity; pursue each other with less violence, and seem to be less powerfully actuated by all their appetites. The greediness with which sea-fish devour the bait is prodigious, if compared with the manner they take it in fresh water. The lines of such fishermen as go off to sea are coarse, thick, and clumsy, compared to what are used by those who fish at land. Their baits are seldom more than a piece of a fish, or the flesh of some quadruped, stuck on the hook in a bungling manner; and scarcely any art is employed to conceal the deception. But it is otherwise in fresh

water: the lines must often be drawn to a hair-like fineness; they must be tintured of the peculiar colour of the stream; the bait must be formed with the nicest art, and even, if possible, to exceed the perfection of nature: yet still the fishes approach it with diffidence, and often swim round it with disdain. The cod, on the banks of Newfoundland, the instant the hook, which is only baited with the guts of the animal last taken, is dropped into the water, darts to it at once, and the fishermen have but to pull up as fast as they throw down. But it is otherwise with those who fish in fresh waters, they must wait whole hours in fruitless expectation; and *the patience of a fisherman* is proverbial among us.

This comparative neglect of food, which is found in all the tribes of fresh-water fishes, renders them less turbulent and less destructive among each other. Of all these the pike is the most active and voracious; and our poets, whose business it is to observe the surface of nature, have called it the tyrant of the watery plain. In fact, in proportion to its strength and celerity, the pike does some mischief; but what are its effects compared to those of the cachalot or the shark! they resemble the petty depredations of a robber, put in competition with the ravages of a conqueror! However, the pike will attack every fish less than itself; and it is sometimes seen choaked, by attempting to swallow such as are too large a morsel. It is immaterial of what species the animal it pursues appears to be, whether of another or its own, all are indiscriminately devoured; so that every fish owes its safety to its minuteness, its celerity, or its courage: nor does the pike confine itself to feed on fish and frogs; it will draw down the water-rat and the young ducks, as they are swimming about. Gesner tells us of a mule that stooped to drink in the water, when a famished pike, that was near, seized it by the nose, nor was it disengaged till the beast flung it on shore. So great is their rapacity, that they will contend with the otter for his prey, and even endeavour to force it from him. For this reason it is dreaded by all other fish; and the small ones show the same uneasiness and detestation at the presence of their tyrant, as the little birds do at the sight of an hawk or an owl. When the pike lies asleep near the surface, as is frequently the case, the lesser fish

are often observed to swim around it in vast numbers, with a mixture of caution and terror.

The other tribes of fresh-water fish are much inferior to this animal in courage and rapacity: they chiefly subsist upon worms and insects, pursuing them at the bottom, or jumping after them to the surface of the water. In winter also, their appetite seems entirely to forsake them; at least they continue in so torpid a state, that few baits will tempt them to their destruction. At that season, they forsake the shallow waters, and seek those deep holes to be found in every river, where they continue for days together, without ever appearing to move. The cold seems to affect them; for at that time they lie close to the bottom, where the water is most warm, and seldom venture out, except the day be peculiarly fine, and the shallows at the edges of the stream become tepid by the powerful rays of the sun. Indeed, I have been assured, that some fishes may be rendered so torpid by the cold, in the northern rivers, as to be frozen up in the great masses of ice, in which they continue for several months together, seemingly without life or sensation, the prisoners of congelation, and waiting the approach of a warmer sun to restore them at once to life and liberty. Thus that cheerful luminary not only distributes health and vegetation to the productions of the earth, but is ardently sought even by the gelid inhabitants of the water.

As fish are enemies one to another, so each species is infested with worms of different kinds peculiar to itself. The great fish abound with them; and the little ones are not entirely free. These troublesome vermin lodge themselves either in the jaws and the intestines internally, or near the fins without. When fish are healthy and fat they are not much annoyed by them; but in winter, when they are lean or sickly, they then suffer very much.

Nor does the reputed longevity of this class secure them from their peculiar disorders. They are not only affected by too much cold, but there are frequently certain dispositions of the element in which they reside unfavourable to their health and propagation. Some ponds they will not breed in, however artfully disposed for supplying them with fresh recruits of water, as well as provision. In some sea-

sons they are found to feel epidemic disorders, and are seen dead by the water side, without any apparent cause: yet still they are animals of all others the most vivacious, and they often live and subsist upon such substances as are poisonous to the more perfect classes of animated nature.

It is not easy to determine whether the poisonous qualities which many of them are found to possess, either when they wound our bodies externally with their spines, or when they are unwarily eaten at our tables, arises from this cause. That numbers of fishes inflict poisonous wounds, in the opinion of many, cannot be doubted. The concurrent testimony of mankind they think sufficient to contradict any reasonings upon this head, taken from anatomical inspection. The great pain that is felt from the sting given by the back fin of the weaver, bears no proportion to the smallness of the instrument that inflicts the wound. How the poison is preserved, or how it is conveyed by the animal, it is not in our power to perceive; but its actual existence has been often attested by painful experience. In this instance we must decline conjecture, satisfied with history.

The fact of their being poisonous when eaten, is equally notorious; and the cause equally inscrutable. My poor worthy friend, Dr. Grainger, who resided for many years at St. Christopher's, assured me, that of the fish caught, of the same kind, at one end of the island, some were the best and most wholesome in the world; while others taken at a different end were always dangerous, and most commonly fatal. We have a paper in the Philosophical Transactions, giving an account of the poisonous qualities of those found at New Providence, one of the Bahama islands. The author assures us, that the greatest part of the fish of that dreary coast are all of a deadly nature: their smallest effects being to bring on a terrible pain in the joints, which, if terminating favourably, leaves the patient without any appetite for several days after. It is not those of the most deformed figure, or the most frightful to look at, that are alone to be dreaded; all kinds, at different times, are alike dangerous; and the same species which has this day served for nourishment, is the next, if tried, found to be fatal!

This noxious quality has given rise to much speculation,

and many conjectures. Some have supposed it to arise from the fishes on these shores eating of the manchineel apple, a deadly vegetable poison, that sometimes grows pendent over the sea: but the quantity of those trees growing in this manner, bears no proportion to the extensive infection of the fish. Labat has ascribed it to their eating the galley-fish, which is itself most potently poisonous: but this only removes our wonder a little farther back; for it may be asked, with as just a cause for curiosity, how comes the galley-fish itself to procure its noxious qualities? Others have ascribed the poison of these fishes to their feeding upon copperas-beds: but I do not know of any copper-mines found in America. In short, as we cannot describe the alembic by which the rattlesnake distils its malignity, nor the process by which the scorpion, that lives among roses, converts their sweets to venom, so we cannot discover the manner by which fishes become thus dangerous; and it is well for us of Europe that we can thus wonder in security. It is certain that with us, if fishes, such as carp or tench, acquire any disagreeable flavour from the lakes in which they have been bred, this can be removed, by their being kept some time in finer and better water: there they soon clear away all those disagreeable qualities their flesh had contracted, and become as delicate as if they had been always fed in the most cleanly manner. But this expedient is with us rather the precaution of luxury than the effect of fear: we have nothing to dread from the noxious qualities of our fish; for all the animals our waters furnish are wholesome.

Happy England! where the sea furnishes an abundant and luxurious repast, and the fresh waters an innocent and harmless pastime; where the angler, in cheerful solitude, strolls by the edge of the stream, and fears neither the coiled snake, nor the lurking crocodile; where he can retire at night, with his few trouts (to borrow the pretty description of old Walton) to some friendly cottage, where the landlady is good, and the daughter innocent and beautiful; where the room is cleanly, with lavender in the sheets, and twenty ballads stuck about the wall! There he can enjoy the company of a talkative brother sportsman, have

his trouts dressed for supper, tell tales, sing old tunes, or make a catch! There he can talk of the wonders of nature with learned admiration, or find some harmless sport to content him, and pass away a little time, without offence to God, or injury to man!

END OF THE THIRD VOLUME.

A
HISTORY
OF THE
EARTH,
AND
ANIMATED NATURE.

IN FOUR VOLUMES.

BY OLIVER GOLDSMITH.

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C O N T E N T S.

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A HISTORY OF ANIMALS.

PART IV.

OF FISHES,—continued.

BOOK IV.

OF CRUSTACEOUS AND TESTACEOUS FISHES.

CHAP. I.

THE DIVISION OF SHELL FISH.

IN describing the inhabitants of the water, a class of animals occur, that mankind, from the place of their residence, have been content to call fish; but that naturalists, from their formation, have justly agreed to be unworthy of the name. Indeed, the affinity many of this kind bear to the insect tribe, may very well plead for the historian who ranks them rather as insects. However, the common language of a country must not be slightly invaded; the names of things may remain, if the philosopher be careful to give precision to our ideas of them.

There are two classes of animals, therefore, inhabiting the water, which commonly receive the name of fishes, entirely different from those we have been describing, and also very distinct from each other. These are divided by naturalists into Crustaceous and Testaceous Animals: both, totally unlike fishes to appearance, seem to invert the order of nature; and as those have their bones on the inside, and their muscles hung upon them for the purposes of life and motion, these, on the contrary, have all their bony parts on

the outside, and all their muscles within. Not to talk mysteriously—all who have seen a lobster or an oyster, perceive that the shell in these bears a strong analogy to the bones of other animals; and that, by these shells, the animal is sustained and defended.

Crustaceous fish, such as the crab and the lobster, have a shell not quite of a stony hardness, but rather resembling a firm crust, and in some measure capable of yielding.—Testaceous fishes, such as the oyster or cockle, are furnished with a shell of a stony hardness; very brittle, and incapable of yielding. Of the crustaceous kinds are the Lobster, the Crab, and the Tortoise: of the testaceous, that numerous tribe of Oysters, Mussels, Cockles, and Sea-Snails, which offer with infinite variety.

The crustaceous tribe seem to hold the middle rank between fishes, properly so called, and those snail-like animals that receive the name of testaceous fishes. Their muscles are strong and firm, as in the former; their shell is self-produced, as among the latter. They have motion, and hunt for food with great avidity, like the former. They are incapable of swimming, but creep along the bottom, like the latter: in short, they form the link that unites these two classes, that seem so very opposite in their natures.

Of testaceous fishes we will speak hereafter. As to animals of the crustaceous kind, they are very numerous, their figure offers a hundred varieties: but as to their nature, they are obviously divided into two very distinct kinds, differing in their habits and their conformation.—The chief of one kind is the Lobster; the chief of the other, the Tortoise. Under the Lobster we rank the Prawn, the Cray-fish, the Shrimp, the Sea-Crab, the Land-Crab, and all their varieties. Under the Sea-Tortoise, the Turtle, the Hawksbill-Turtle, the Land-Tortoise, and their numerous varieties.

CHAP. II.

CRUSTACEOUS ANIMALS OF THE LOBSTER KIND.

HOWEVER different in figure the lobster and the crab may seem, their manners and conformation are nearly the

same. With all the voracious appetites of fishes, they are condemned to lead an insect life at the bottom of the water ; and though pressed by continual hunger, they are often obliged to wait till accident brings them their prey. Though without any warmth in their bodies, or even without red blood circulating through their veins, they are animals wonderfully voracious. Whatever they seize upon that has life, is sure to perish, though never so well defended : they even devour each other ; and, to increase our surprise still more, they may, in some measure, be said to eat themselves ; as they change their shell and their stomach every year, and their old stomach is generally the first morsel that serves to glut the new.*

The lobster is an animal of so extraordinary a form, that those who first see it are apt to mistake the head for the tail ; but it is soon discovered that the animal moves with its claws foremost ; and that the part which plays within itself by joints, like a coat of armour, is the tail. The two great claws are the lobster's instruments of provision and defence ; these, by opening like a pair of nippers, have great strength, and take a firm hold ; they are usually notched like a saw, which still more increases their tenacity. Beside these powerful instruments, which may be considered as arms, the lobster has eight legs, four on each side, and these, with the tail, serve to give the animal its progressive and sideling motion. Between the two claws is the animal's head, very small, and furnished with eyes that seem like two black horny specks on each side ; and these it has a power of advancing out of the socket, and drawing in, at pleasure. The mouth, like that of insects, opens the long way of the body, not crossways, as with man, and the higher race of animals. It is furnished with two teeth for the comminution of its food ; but, as these are not sufficient, it has three more in the stomach ; one on each side, and the other below. Between the two teeth there is a fleshy substance, in the shape of a tongue. The intestines consist of one long bowel, which reaches from the mouth to the vent ; but what this animal differs in from

* That Lobsters and Crabs change their stomachs annually, does not appear to have been ascertained as a fact : but, at this time, those calcareous concretions, known in the shops by the name of Crab's eyes are found in their stomachs.

all others, is, that the spinal marrow is in the breast-bone. It is furnished with two long feelers or horns, that issue on each side of the head, that seem to correct the dimness of its sight, and apprise the animal of its danger, or of its prey. The tail, or that jointed instrument at the other end, is the grand instrument of motion; and with this it can raise itself in the water. Under this we usually see lodged the spawn in great abundance; every pea adhering to the next by a very fine filament, which is scarcely perceivable. Every lobster is an hermaphrodite, and is supposed to be self-impregnated!* The ovary, or place where the spawn is first produced, is backwards toward the tail, where a red substance is always found, and which is nothing but a cluster of peas, that are yet too small for exclusion. From this receptacle there go two canals, that open on each side at the jointures of the shell, at the belly; and through these passages the peas descend to be excluded, and placed under the tail, where the animal preserves them from danger for some time, until they come to maturity; when, being furnished with limbs and motion, they drop off into the water.

When the young lobsters leave the parent, they immediately seek for refuge in the smallest clefts of rocks, and in such like crevices at the bottom of the sea, where the entrance is but small, and the opening can be easily defended. There, without seeming to take any food, they grow larger in a few weeks time, from the mere accidental substances which the water washes to their retreats. By this time, also, they acquire a hard firm shell, which furnishes them with both offensive and defensive armour. They then begin to issue from their fortresses, and boldly creep along the bottom, in hopes of meeting with more diminutive plunder. The spawn of fish, the smaller animals of their own kind, but chiefly the worms that keep at the bottom of the sea, supply them with plenty. They keep in this manner close among the rocks, busily employed in scratching up the sand with their claws for worms, or surprising such heedless animals as fall within their grasp:

* The animals of this tribe are by no means hermaphrodites, but are found distinctly male and female. The eggs are deposited under the tail of the females, which for that purpose is often much broader than that of the males.

thus they have little to apprehend, except from each other; for in them, as among fishes, the large are the most formidable of all other enemies to the small.

But this life of abundance and security is soon to have a most dangerous interruption; for the body of the lobster still continuing to increase, while its shell remains unalterably the same, the animal becomes too large for its habitation, and, imprisoned within the crust that it has naturally gathered round it, there comes on a necessity of getting free. The young of this kind, therefore, that grow faster, as I am assured by the fishermen, change their shell oftener than the old, who come to their full growth, and who remain in the same shell often for two years together. In general, however, all these animals change their shell once a year; and this is not only a most painful operation, but also subjects them to every danger. Their moulting season is generally about the beginning of summer, at which time their food is in plenty, and their strength and vigour in the highest perfection. But soon all their activity ceases; they are seen forsaking the open parts of the deep, and seeking some retired situation among the rocks, or some outlet where they may remain in safety from the attacks of their various enemies. For some days before their change, the animal discontinues its usual voraciousness; it is no longer seen laboriously harrowing up the sand at the bottom, or fighting with others of its kind, or hunting its prey; it lies torpid and motionless, as if in anxious expectation of the approaching change. Just before casting its shell, it throws itself upon its back, strikes its claws against each other, and every limb seems to tremble; its feelers are agitated, and the whole body is in violent motion; it then swells itself in an unusual manner, and at last the shell is seen beginning to divide at its junctures; particularly, it opens at the junctures of the belly, where, like a pair of jumps, it was before but seemingly united. It also seems turned inside out, and its stomach comes away with its shell.—After this, by the same operation, it disengages itself of the claws, which burst at the joints; the animal, with a tremulous motion, casting them off as a man would kick off a boot that was too big for him.

Thus, in a short time, this wonderful creature finds itself

at liberty, but in so weak and enfeebled a state, that it continues for several hours motionless. Indeed, so violent and painful is the operation, that many of them die under it; and those which survive are in such a weakly state for some time, that they neither take food nor venture from their retreats. Immediately after this change, they have not only the softness but the timidity of a worm. Every animal of the deep is then a powerful enemy, which they can neither escape nor oppose; and this, in fact, is the time when the dog-fish, the cod, and the ray, devour them by hundreds. But this state of defenceless imbecility continues for a very short time: the animal, in less than two days, is seen to have the skin that covered its body grown almost as hard as before; its appetite is seen to increase; and, strange to behold! the first object that tempts its gluttony, is its own stomach, which it so lately was disengaged from. This it devours with great eagerness; and some time after eats even its former shell. In about forty-eight hours, in proportion to the animal's health and strength, the new shell is perfectly formed, and as hard as that which was but just thrown aside.

To contribute to the speedy growth of the shell, it is supposed by some, that the lobster is supplied with a very extraordinary concretion within its body, that is converted into the shelly substance. It is a chalky substance, found in the lower part of the stomach of all lobsters, improperly called crabs' eyes, and sold under that title in the shops. About the time the lobster quits its shell, the teeth in its stomach break these stones to pieces, and the fluids contained therein dissolve them. This fluid, which still remains in the new stomach, is thought to be replete with a petrifying quality, proper for forming a new shell: however, the concreting power that first formed these, shews a sufficient power in the animal to produce also the shell; and it is going but a short way in the causes of things when we attempt to explain one wonder by another.

When the lobster is completely equipped in its new shell, it then appears how much it has grown in the space of a very few days; the dimensions of the old shell being compared with those of the new, it will be found that the creature is increased above a third in its size; and, like a boy that has outgrown his clothes, it seems wonderful how

the deserted shell was able to contain so great an animal as entirely fills up the new.

The creature thus furnished, not only with a complete covering, but also a greater share of strength and courage, ventures more boldly among the animals of the bottom; and not a week passes, that, in its combats, it does not suffer some mutilation. A joint, or even a whole claw, is sometimes snapped off in these encounters. At certain seasons of the year these animals never meet each other without an engagement. In these, to come off with the loss of a leg, or even a claw, is considered as no great calamity; the victor carries off the spoil to feast upon at leisure, while the other retires from the defeat to wait for a thorough repair. This repair it is not long in procuring. From the place where the joint of the claw was cut away, is seen in a most surprising manner to burgeon out the beginning of a new claw. This, if observed, at first, is small and tender, but grows, in the space of three weeks, to be almost as large and as powerful as the old one. I say almost as large, for it never arrives to the full size; and this is the reason we generally find the claws of lobsters of unequal magnitude.

After what has been thus described, let us pause a little, to reflect on the wonders this extraordinary creature offers to our imagination! An animal without bones on the inside, yet furnished with a stomach capable of digesting the hardest substances, the shells of mussels, of oysters, and even its own; an animal gaining a new stomach and a new shell at stated intervals! furnished with the instruments of generation double in both sexes; and yet with an apparent incapacity of uniting! without red blood circulating through the body, and yet apparently vigorous and active! but, most strange of all, an animal endowed with a vital principle that furnishes out such limbs as have been cut away; and keeps continually combating it, though in constant repair to renew its engagements! These are but a small part of the wonders of the deep, where nature sports without a spectator!

Of this extraordinary yet well-known animal there are many varieties, with some differences in the claws, but little in the habits or conformation. It is found above three feet long; and if we may admit the shrimp and the prawn

into the class, though unfurnished with claws, it is seen not above an inch. These all live in the water, and can bear its absence for but a few hours. The shell is black when taken out of the water, but turns red by boiling. The most common way of taking the lobster is in a basket, or pot, as the fishermen call it, made of wicker-work, in which they put the bait, and then throw it to the bottom of the sea, in six or ten fathom water. The lobsters creep into this for the sake of the bait, but are not able to get out again. The river cray-fish differs little from the lobster, but that the one will live only in fresh water, and the other will thrive only in the sea.

The crab is an animal found equally in fresh and salt water; as well upon land as in the ocean. In shape it differs very much from the lobster, but entirely resembles it in habits and conformation. The tail in this animal is not so apparent as in the former, being that broad flap that seems to cover a part of the belly, and when lifted discovers the peas or spawn, situated there in great abundance. It resembles the lobster in the number of its claws, which are two; and its legs, which are eight, four on either side. Like the lobster, it is a bold voracious animal; and such an enmity do crabs bear each other, that those who carry them for sale to market, often tie their claws with strings to prevent their fighting and maiming themselves by the way. In short, it resembles the lobster in every thing but the amazing bulk of its body compared to the size of its head, and the length of its intestines, which have many convolutions.

As the crab, however, is found upon land as well as in water, the peculiarity of its situation produces a difference in its habitudes, which it is proper to describe. The Land Crab is found in some of the warmer regions of Europe, and in great abundance in all the tropical climates in Africa and America. They are of various kinds, and endued with various properties; some being healthful, delicious, and nourishing food; others, poisonous or malignant to the last degree; some are not above half an inch broad, others are found a foot over; some are of a dirty brown, and others beautifully mottled. That animal called the Violet Crab of the Caribbee Islands, is the most noted, both for the shape, the delicacy of its flesh, and the singularity of its manners

The Violet Crab somewhat resembles two hands cut through the middle and joined together ; for each side looks like four fingers, and the two nippers or claws resemble the thumbs. All the rest of the body is covered with a shell as large as a man's hand, and bunched in the middle, on the fore-part of which there are two long eyes of the size of a grain of barley, as transparent as crystal, and as hard as horn. A little below these is the mouth, covered with a sort of barbs, under which there are two broad sharp teeth as white as snow. They are not placed, as in other animals, crossways, but in the opposite direction, not much unlike the blades of a pair of scissors. With these teeth they can easily cut leaves, fruits, and rotten wood, which is their usual food. But their principal instrument for cutting and seizing their food is their nippers, which catch such a hold, that the animal loses the limb sooner than its grasp, and is often seen scampering off, having left its claw still holding fast upon the enemy. The faithful claw seems to perform its duty, and keeps for above a minute fastened upon the finger while the crab is making off.* In fact, it loses no great matter by leaving a leg or an arm, for they soon grow again, and the animal is found as perfect as before.

This, however, is the least surprising part of this creature's history ; and what I am going to relate, were it not as well known and as confidently confirmed as any other circumstance in natural history, it might well stagger our belief. These animals live not only in a kind of orderly society in their retreats in the mountains, but regularly once a year march down to the sea-side in a body of some millions at a time. As they multiply in great numbers, they choose the months of April or May to begin their expedition ; and then sally out by thousands from the stumps of hollow trees, from the clefts of the rocks, and from the holes which they dig for themselves under the surface of the earth. At that time the whole ground is covered with this band of adventurers ; there is no setting down one's foot without treading upon them.† The sea is their place of destination, and to that they direct their march with right-lined precision. No geometrician could send them to their destined station by a shorter course ;

* Brown's Jamaica, p. 423.

† Labat. Voyage aux Isle Françaises, vol. ii. p. 221.

This animal, when possessed of its retreats in the mountains, is impregnable; for only subsisting upon vegetables, it seldom ventures out; and its habitation being in the most inaccessible places, it remains for a great part of the season in perfect security. It is only when impelled by the desire of bringing forth its young, and when compelled to descend into the flat country, that it is taken. At that time the natives wait for its descent in eager expectation, and destroy thousands; but disregarding the bodies, they only seek for that small spawn which lies on each side of the stomach within the shell; of about the thickness of a man's thumb. They are much more valuable upon their return, after they have cast their shell; for being covered with a skin resembling soft parchment, almost every part except the stomach may be eaten. They are taken in their holes by feeling for them in the ground with an instrument: they are sought after by night, when on their journey, with flambeaux. The instant the animal perceives itself attacked, it throws itself on its back, and with its claws pinches most terribly whatever it happens to fasten on. But the dexterous crab-catcher takes them by the hinder legs in such a manner, that its nippers cannot touch him, and thus he throws it into his bag. Sometimes also they are caught when they take refuge at the bottom of holes, in rocks by the sea-side, by clapping a stick at the mouth of the hole, which prevents their getting out; and then soon after the tide coming, enters the hole, and the animal is found, upon its retiring, drowned in its retreat.

These crabs are of considerable advantage to the natives; and the slaves very often feed entirely upon them. In Jamaica, where they are found in great plenty, they are considered as one of the greatest delicacies of the place. Yet still, the eating of them is attended with some danger; for even of this kind many are found poisonous, being fed, as it is thought, upon the manchineel apple; and whenever they are found under that noxious plant, they are always rejected with caution. It is thus with almost all the productions of those luxurious climates; however tempting they may be to the appetite, they but too often are found destructive; and scarce a delicacy among them that does not carry its own alloy.

The descent of these creatures for such important purposes, deserves our admiration ; but there is an animal of the lobster kind that annually descends from its mountains in like manner, and for purposes still more important and various. Its descent is not only to produce an offspring, but to provide itself a covering ; not only to secure a family, but to furnish a house. The animal I mean is the Soldier Crab, which has some similitude to the lobster, if divested of its shell. It is usually about four inches long, has no shell behind, but is covered down to the tail with a rough skin, terminating in a point. It is, however, armed with strong hard nippers before, like the lobster ; and one of them is as thick as a man's thumb, and pinches most powerfully. It is, as I said, without a shell to any part except its nippers ; but what nature has denied this animal, it takes care to supply by art ; and taking possession of the deserted shell of some other animal, it resides in it, till, by growing too large for its habitation, it is under a necessity of change. It is a native of the West India Islands ; and, like the former, it is seen every year descending from the mountains to the sea-shore, to deposit its spawn, and to provide itself with a new shell. This is a most bustling time with it, having so many things to do ; and, in fact, very busy it appears. It is very probable that its first care is to provide for its offspring, before it attends to its own wants ; and it is thought, from the number of little shells which it is seen examining, that it deposits its spawn in them, which thus is placed in perfect security till the time of exclusion.

However this be, the soldier is in the end by no means unmindful of itself. It is still seen in its old shell, which it appears to have considerably outgrown ; for a part of the naked body is seen at the mouth of it, which the habitation is too small to hide. A shell, therefore, is to be found large enough to cover the whole body ; and yet not so large as to be unmanageable and unwieldy. To answer both these ends it is no easy matter, nor the attainment of a slight inquiry. The little soldier is seen busily parading the shore along that line of pebbles and shells that is formed by the extremest wave ; still, however, dragging its old incommodious habitation at its tail, unwilling to part with one shell, even though a troublesome appendage, till it can

find another more convenient. It is seen stopping at one shell, turning it, and passing it by, going on to another, contemplating that for a while, and then slipping its tail from its old habitation, to try on the new. This also is found to be inconvenient; and it quickly returns to its old shell again. In this manner it frequently changes, till at last it finds one light, roomy, and commodious; to this it adheres, though the shell be sometimes so large as to hide the body of the animal, claws and all.* Yet it is not till after many trials, but many combats also, that the soldier is thus completely equipped; for there is often a contest between two of them for some well-looking favourite shell for which they are rivals. They both endeavour to take possession; they strike with their claws, they bite each other, till the weakest is obliged to yield, by giving up the object of dispute. It is then that the victor immediately takes possession, and parades it in his new conquest three or four times backward and forward upon the strand before his envious antagonist.

When this animal is taken, it sends forth a feeble cry, endeavouring to seize the enemy with its nippers; which if it fastens upon, it will sooner die than quit the grasp. The wound is very painful, and not easily cured. For this reason, and as it is not much esteemed for its flesh, it is generally permitted to return to its old retreat to the mountains in safety. There it continues till the necessity of changing once more, and the desire of producing an offspring expose it to fresh dangers the year ensuing.

CHAP. III.

OF THE TORTOISE AND ITS KINDS.

HAVING described the lobster and the crab as animals in some measure approaching to the insect tribes, it will appear like injustice to place the Tortoise among the number, that from its strength, its docility, and the warm red blood that is circulating in its veins, deserves to be

* Pere du Festre.

ranked even above the fishes. But as this animal is covered, like the lobster, with a shell; as it is of an amphibious nature, and brings forth its young from the egg without hatching; we must be content to degrade it among animals that in every respect it infinitely surpasses.

Tortoises are usually divided into those that live upon land, and those that subsist in the water; and use has made a distinction even in the name; the one being called Tortoises, the other Turtles. However, Seba has proved that all tortoises are amphibious; that the land tortoise will live in the water, and that the sea turtle can be fed upon land. A land tortoise was brought to him that was caught in one of the canals of Amsterdam, which he kept for half a year in his house, where it lived very well contented in both elements. When in the water, it remained with its head above the surface; when placed in the sun, it seemed delighted with its beams, and continued immoveable while it felt their warmth. The difference, therefore, in these animals, arises rather from their habits than their conformation; and, upon examination, there will be less variety found between them than between birds that live upon land, and those that swim upon the water.

Yet, though nature seems to have made but few distinctions among these animals, as to their conformation, yet, in their habits, they are very dissimilar; as these result from different qualities of their food, and the different sorts of enemies they have to avoid or encounter. I will therefore exhibit their figure and conformation under one common description, by which their slight differences will be more obvious; and then I will give a separate history of the manners of each, as naturalists and travellers have taught us.

All tortoises, in their external form, pretty much resemble each other; their outward covering being composed of two great shells, the one laid upon the other, and only touching at the edges: however, when we come to look closer we shall find that the upper shell is composed of no less than thirteen pieces, which are laid flat upon the ribs, like the tiles of a house, by which the shell is kept arched and supported. The shells both above and below that, which seem, to an inattentive observer, to make each but one piece, are bound together at the edges by very strong

and hard ligaments, yet with some small share of motion. There are two holes at either edge of this vaulted body; one for a very small head, shoulders, and arms, to peep through; the other at the opposite edge, for the feet and the tail. These shells the animal is never disengaged from; and they serve for its defence against every creature but man.

The tortoise has but a small head, with no teeth; having only two bony ridges in the place, serrated and hard. These serve to gather and grind its food; and such is the amazing strength of the jaws, that it is impossible to open them where they once have fastened. Even when the head is cut off, the jaws still keep their hold; and the muscles, in death, preserve a tenacious rigidity. Indeed, the animal is possessed of equal strength in all other parts of its body: the legs, though short, are inconceivably strong; and torpid as the tortoise may appear, it has been known to carry five men standing upon its back, with apparent ease and unconcern. Its manner of going forward is by moving its legs one after the other; and the claws with which the toes are furnished, sink into the ground like the nails of an iron-shod wheel, and thus assist its progression.

With respect to its internal parts, not to enter into minute anatomical disquisitions, it may not be improper to observe, that the blood circulates in this animal as in some cartilaginous fishes, and something in the manner of a child in the womb. The greatest quantity of the blood passes directly from the vena cava into the left ventricle of the heart, which communicates with the right ventricle by an opening; while the auricles only receive what the ventricles seem incapable of admitting. Thus the blood is driven by a very short passage through the circulation; and the lungs seem to lend only occasional assistance. From this conformation, the animal can subsist for some time, without using the lungs, or breathing; at least, the lungs are not so necessary an instrument for driving on the circulation as with us.

Such is the general structure of this animal, whether found to live by land or water. With regard to the differences of these animals, the land-tortoise, from its habits of making use of its feet in walking, is much more nimble upon land than the sea-turtle: the land-tortoise, if thrown

upon its back, by rocking and balancing its body, like a child rocking in a cradle, at last turns itself upon its face again; but the turtle, when once turned, continues without being able to move from the spot. In comparing the feet also of these animals, the nails upon the toes of one that has long been used to scratch for subsistence upon land, are blunt and worn; while those that have only been employed in swimming, are sharp and long, and have more the similitude of fins. The brain of the land-tortoise is but small; and yet it is three times as large as that of the turtle.—There is a difference also in the shape of their eggs, and in the passage by which they are excluded; for, in the land-tortoise, the passage is so narrow, that the egg conforms to the shape of the aperture, and though round when in the body, yet becomes much more oblong than those of fowls upon being excluded; otherwise they would never be able to pass through the bony canal by which they are protruded: on the contrary, the passage is wider in the turtle, and therefore its eggs are round. These are the most striking distinctions; but that which is most known is their size; the land-tortoise often not exceeding three feet long, by two feet broad; the sea-turtle being sometimes from five to seven feet long. The size, however, is but a fallacious distinction; since land-tortoises, in some parts of India, grow to a very great magnitude; though probably not, as the ancients affirm, big enough for a single shell to serve for the covering of a house.

But if the different kinds of tortoises are not sufficiently distinguished by their figure, they are very obviously distinguishable by their methods of living. The land-tortoise lives in holes dug in the mountains, or near marshy lakes; the sea-turtle in cavities of rocks, and extensive pastures at the bottom of the sea. The tortoise makes use of its feet to walk with, and burrow in the ground; the turtle chiefly uses its feet in swimming, or creeping at the bottom.

The land-tortoise is generally found, as was observed above, from one foot to five feet long, from the end of the snout to the end of the tail; and from five inches to a foot and a half across the back. It has a small head, somewhat resembling that of a serpent: an eye without the upper lid; the under eye-lid serving to cover and keep that organ in

safety. It has a strong scaly tail, like the lizard. Its head the animal can put out and hide at pleasure, under the great penthouse of its shell; there it can remain secure from all attacks; there, defended on every side, it can fatigue the patience of the most formidable animal of the forest, that makes use only of natural strength to destroy it. As the tortoise lives wholly upon vegetable food, it never seeks the encounter; yet, if any of the smaller animals attempt to invade its repose, they are sure to suffer. The tortoise, impregnably defended, is furnished with such a strength of jaw, that, though armed only with bony plates instead of teeth, wherever it fastens it infallibly keeps its hold, until it has taken out the piece.

Though peaceable in itself, it is formed for war in another respect, for it seems almost endued with immortality. Nothing can kill it; the depriving it of one of its members, is but a slight injury; it will live, though deprived of the brain; it will live, though deprived of its head. Redi informs us, that in making some experiments upon vital motion, he, in the beginning of the month of November, took a land-tortoise, made a large opening in its skull, and drew out all the brain, washed the cavity, so as not to leave the smallest part remaining, and then, leaving the hole open, set the animal at liberty. Notwithstanding this, the tortoise marched away without seeming to have received the smallest injury; only it shut the eyes, and never opened them afterwards. Soon after the hole in the skull was seen to close; and, in three days, there was a complete skin covering the wound. In this manner the animal lived without a brain, for six months; walking about unconcernedly, and moving its limbs as before. But the Italian philosopher, not satisfied with this experiment, carried it still farther; for he cut off the head, and the animal lived twenty-three days after its separation from the body. The head also continued to rattle the jaws, like a pair of castanets, for above a quarter of an hour.

Nor are these animals less long-lived than difficult in destroying. Tortoises are commonly known to exceed eighty years old; and there was one kept in the Archbishop of Canterbury's garden, at Lambeth, that was remembered above a hundred and twenty. It was at last killed by the severity of a frost, from which it had not sufficiently defended

itself in its winter retreat, which was a heap of sand, at the bottom of the garden.

The usual food of the land tortoise seems not so nourishing as to supply this extraordinary principle of vitality. It lives upon vegetables in its retreats in the mountains or the plain; and seldom makes its prey of snails or worms, but when other food is not found in grateful plenty. It is fond also of fruits; and when the forest affords them, is generally found not far from where they grow. As it can move but slowly, it is not very delicate in the choice of its food; so that it usually fills itself with whatever offers. Those that are kept in a domestic state will eat any thing; leaves, fruits, corn, bran, or grass.

From the smallness of its brain, and the slowness of its motion, it obviously appears to be a torpid heavy animal, requiring rest and sleep; and, in fact, it retires to some cavern to sleep for the winter. I already observed that its blood circulated through the heart by a short passage; and that it did not, as anatomists express it, go through the great circulation. With us, and quadrupeds, the blood goes from the veins to the heart; and from the heart it is sent to be spread over the lungs; from the lungs it returns to the heart again; and from thence it goes to the arteries to be distributed through the whole body. But its passage in the tortoise is much shorter; for, from the veins it goes to the heart; then leaving the lungs entirely out of its course, it takes a short cut, if I may so say, into the beginning of the arteries, which send it round the animal frame. From hence we see the lungs are left out of the circulation; and, consequently, the animal is capable of continuing to live without continuing to breathe. In this it resembles the bat, the serpent, the mole, and the lizard; like them it takes up its dark residence for the winter; and, at that time, when its food is no longer in plenty, it happily becomes insensible to the want. Nor is it unmindful to prepare its retreat, and make it as convenient as possible; it is sometimes buried two or three feet in the ground, with its hole furnished with moss, grass, and other substances, as well to keep the retreat warm, as to serve for food, in case it should prematurely wake from its state of stupefaction. But it must not be supposed, that, while it is thus at rest, it totally discontinues to breathe; on

the contray, an animal of this kind, if put into a close vessel, without air, will soon be stifled; though not so readily as in a state of vigour and activity.

From this dormant state the tortoise is awakened by the genial return of spring; and is thought not to be much wasted by its long confinement. To animals that live an hundred and fifty years, a sleep of six months is but as the nap of a night. All the actions of these long-lived creatures seem formed upon a scale answering the length of their existence; their slumbers are for a season; their motions are slow, and require time in every action; even the act of procreation, which among other animals is performed in a very few minutes, is with them the business of days. About a month after their enlargement from a torpid state, they prepare to transmit their posterity; and both continue joined for near a month together. The eggs of the female are contained in the ovary, above the bladder, which is extremely large; and these are, before their exclusion, round and naked, with some spots of red; after they are laid, however, they assume another form, being smaller and longer than those of a hen. This alteration in the figure of the eggs most probably proceeds from the narrowness of the bony passage through which they are excluded. Swammerdam, who compared the size of the eggs taken out of this animal's body with the diameter of the passage through which they were excluded, was of opinion that the bones themselves separated from each other, and closed again; but, in my opinion, it is more probable to suppose, that the eggs, and not the bones, alter their form. Certain it is, that they are round in the body, and that they are oval upon being protruded.

The eggs of all the tortoise kind, like those of birds, are furnished with a yolk and a white; but the shell is different, being somewhat like those soft eggs that hens exclude before their time: however, this shell is much thicker and stronger, and is a longer time in coming to maturity in the womb. The land-tortoise lays but a few in number, if compared to the sea-turtle, who deposits from a hundred and fifty to two hundred in a season.

The amount of the land-tortoise's eggs I have not been able to learn; but, from the scarceness of the animal, I am

apt to think they cannot be numerous. When it prepares to lay, the female scratches a slight depression in the earth, generally in a warm situation, where the beams of the sun have their full effect: there depositing her eggs, and covering them with grass and leaves, she forsakes them; to be hatched by the heat of the season. The young tortoises are generally excluded in about twenty-six days; but, as the heat of the weather assists, or its coldness retards incubation, sometimes it happens that there is a difference of two or three days. The little animals no sooner leave the egg than they seek for their provision, entirely self-taught; and their shell, with which they are covered from the beginning, expands and grows larger with age. As it is composed of a variety of pieces they are all capable of extension at their sutures, and the shell admits of increase in every direction. It is otherwise with those animals, like the lobster, whose shell is composed all of one piece, that admits of no increase; which, when the tenant is too big for the habitation, must burst the shell, and get another. But the covering of the tortoise grows larger in proportion as the internal parts expand; in some measure resembling the growth of the human skull, which is composed of a number of bones, increasing in size in proportion to the quantity of the brain. All tortoises, therefore, as they never change their shell, must have it formed in pieces; and though, in some that have been described by painters or historians, these marks have not been attended to, yet we can have no doubt that they are general to the whole tribe.

It is common enough to take these animals into gardens, as they are thought to destroy insects and snails in great abundance. We are even told that, in hot countries, they are admitted into a domestic state, as they are great destroyers of bugs. How so large and heavy an animal is capable of being expert at such petty prey is not easy to conceive; but I have seen several of them about gentlemen's houses, that, in general, appear torpid, harmless, and even fond of employment. Children have sometimes got upon the back of a tortoise; and such was the creature's strength, that it never seemed overloaded, but moved off with its burden to where it expected to be fed, but would carry them no further. In winter they regularly find out a place to sleep in; but in those warm countries in which the tortoise is found larger,

and in greater plenty than in Europe, they live, without retiring, the whole year round.

The Sea Tortoise, or Turtle, as it is now called, is generally found larger than the former. This element is possessed with the property of increasing the magnitude of those animals, which are common to the land and the ocean. The sea pike is larger than that of fresh water; the sea bear is larger than that of the mountains; and the sea turtle exceeds the land tortoise in the same proportion. It is of different magnitudes, according to its different kinds; some turtles being not above fifty pounds weight, and some above eight hundred.

The Great Mediterranean Turtle is the largest of the turtle kind with which we are acquainted. It is found from five to eight feet long, and from six to nine hundred pounds weight. But, unluckily, its utility bears no proportion to its size; as it is unfit for food, and sometimes poisons those who eat it. The shell also, which is a tough strong integument, resembling an hide, is unfit for all serviceable purposes. One of these animals was taken in the year 1729, at the mouth of the Loire, in nets that were not designed for so large a capture. This turtle, which was of enormous strength, by its own struggles involved itself in the nets in such a manner as to be incapable of doing mischief: yet, even thus shackled, it appeared terrible to the fishermen, who were at first for flying; but finding it impotent, they gathered courage to drag it on shore, where it made a most horrible bellowing; and when they began to knock it on the head with their gaffs, it was to be heard at half a mile's distance. They were still further intimidated by its nauseous and pestilential breath, which so powerfully affected them, that they were near fainting.— This animal wanted but four inches of being eight feet long, and was above two feet over: its shell more resembled leather than the shell of a tortoise; and, unlike all other animals of this kind, it was furnished with teeth in each jaw, one rank behind another, like those of a shark: its feet also, different from the rest of this kind, wanted claws; and the tail was quite disengaged from the shell, and fifteen inches long, more resembling that of a quadruped than a tortoise. This animal was then unknown upon the coasts of France, and was supposed to have

been brought into the European seas, in some India ship that might be wrecked upon her return. Since that, however, two or three of these animals have been taken upon the coasts; two in particular, upon those of Cornwall, in the year 1756, the largest of which weighed eight hundred pounds; and one upon the Isle of Rhe, but two years before, that weighed between seven and eight hundred. One, most probably of this kind also, was caught about thirty years ago near Scarborough, and a good deal of company was invited to feast upon it: a gentleman, who was one of the guests, told the company that it was a Mediterranean turtle, and not wholesome; but a person, who was willing to satisfy his appetite at the risk of his life, ate of it: he was seized with a violent vomiting and purging; but his constitution overpowered the malignity of the poison.

These are a formidable and useless kind, if compared to the turtle caught in the South Seas and the Indian Ocean. These are of different kinds; not only unlike each other in form, but furnishing man with very different advantages. They are usually distinguished by sailors into four kinds; the Trunk Turtle, the Loggerhead, the Hawksbill, and the Green Turtle.

The Trunk Turtle is commonly larger than the rest, and its back higher and rounder. The flesh of this is rank, and not very wholesome.

The Loggerhead is so called from the largeness of its head, which is much bigger in proportion than that of the other kinds. The flesh of this also is very rank, and not eaten but in case of necessity.

The Hawksbill Turtle is the least of the four, and has a long and small mouth, somewhat resembling the bill of a hawk. The flesh of this also is very indifferent eating; but the shell serves for the most valuable purposes. This is the animal that supplies the tortoise-shell, of which such a variety of beautiful trinkets are made. The substance of which the shells of other turtle are composed is thin and porous; but that of the hawksbill is firm, and when polished, is beautifully marbled. They generally carry about three pounds; but the largest of all, six pounds. The shell consists, as in all the kind, of thirteen leaves or plates, of which eight are flat, and five hollow. They are raised

and taken off by means of fire, which is made under the shell after the flesh is taken out. As soon as the heat affects the leaves, they start from the ribs, and are easily raised with the point of a knife. By being scraped and polished on both sides, they become beautifully transparent, or are easily cast into what form the workman thinks proper; by making them soft and pliant in warm water, and then screwing them in a mould, like a medal: however, the shell is most beautiful before it undergoes this last operation.

But of all animals of the tortoise kind, the Green Turtle is the most noted; and the most valuable. The delicacy of its flesh, and its nutritive qualities, together with the property of being easily digested, were, for above a century, known only to our seamen, and the inhabitants of the coasts where they were taken. It was not till by slow degrees the distinction came to be made between such as were malignant and such as were wholesome. The controversies and contradictions of our old travellers were numerous upon this head: some asserting, that the turtle was delicious food; and others, that it was actual poison. Dampier, that rough seaman, who has added more to natural history than half of the philosophers that went before him, appears to be the first who informed us of their distinctions; and that, while the rest might be valuable for other purposes, the green turtle alone was chiefly prized for the delicacy of its flesh. He never imagined, however, that this animal would make its way to the luxurious tables of Europe; for he seems chiefly to recommend it as salted up for ship's provision, in case of necessity.

At present the turtle is very well known among us, and is become the favourite food of those that are desirous of eating a great deal without the danger of surfeiting. This is a property the flesh of the turtle seems peculiarly possessed of; and by the importation of it alive among us, gluttony is freed from one of its greatest restraints. The flesh of the turtle is become a branch of commerce; and therefore ships are provided with conveniences for supplying them with water and provision, to bring them over in health from Jamaica and other West India islands. This, however, is not always effected; for though they are very vivacious, and scarcely require any provision upon the

voyage, yet, by the working of the ship, and their beating against the sides of the boat that contains them, they become battered and lean; so that to eat this animal in the highest perfection, instead of bringing the turtle to the epicure, he ought to be transported to the turtle.

This animal is called the green turtle, from the colour of its shell, which is rather greener than that of others of this kind. It is generally found about two hundred weight; though some are five hundred, and others not above fifty. Dampier tells us of one that was seen at Port-Royal, in Jamaica, that was six feet broad across the back; he does not tell us its other dimensions; but says that the son of Captain Roach, a boy about ten years old, sailed in the shell, as in a boat, from the shore to his father's ship, which was above a quarter of a mile from land. But this is nothing to the size of some turtles the ancients speak of. *Ælian* assures us, that the houses in the island of Taprobane are usually covered with a single shell. *Diodorus Siculus* tells us that a people neighbouring on Ethiopia, called the *Turtle-eaters*, coasted along the shore in boats made of the upper shell of this animal; and that in war, when they had eaten the flesh, the covering served them as a tent. In this account, *Pliny*, and all the rest of the ancients, agree; and, as they had frequent opportunities of knowing the truth, we are not lightly to contradict their testimony.

At present, however, they are not seen of such amazing dimensions. We are told by *Laet*, that on the Isle of Cuba they grow to such a size, as that five men can stand on the back of one of them together; and, what is more surprising still, that the animal does not seem overloaded, but will go off with them upon its back, with a slow steady motion, towards the sea.

They are found in the greatest numbers on the island of Ascension; where for several years, they were taken to be salted to feed the slaves, or for a supply of ship's provision. Their value at present seems to be better known.

This animal seldom comes from the sea but to deposit its eggs, and now and then to sport in fresh water. Its chief food is a submarine plant, that covers the bottom of several parts of the sea not far from the shore. There the turtles are seen, when the weather is fair, feeding in great numbers, like flocks of sheep; several fathoms deep, upon the verdant

carpet below. At other times they go to the mouths of rivers; and they seem to find gratification in fresh water. After some time thus employed, they seek their former stations: and when done feeding, they generally float with their heads above water, unless they are alarmed by the approach of hunters or birds of prey, in which case they suddenly plunge to the bottom. They often seek their provision among the rocks, feeding upon moss and sea-weed; and it is probable will not disdain to prey upon insects and other small animals, as they are very fond of flesh when taken and fed for the table.

At the time of breeding, they are seen to forsake their former haunts and their food, and to take sometimes a voyage of nine hundred miles to deposit their eggs on some favourite shore. The coasts they always resort to upon these occasions are those that are low, flat, and sandy; for, being heavy animals, they cannot climb a bold shore; nor is any bed so proper as sand to lay their eggs on. They couple in March, and continue united till May; during a great part of which time they are seen locked together, and almost incapable of separation. The female seems passive and reluctant; but the male grasps her with his claws in such a manner, that nothing can induce him to quit his hold. It would seem that the grasp, as in frogs, is, in some measure, convulsive, and that the animal is unable to relax its efforts.

When the time for laying approaches, the female is seen towards the setting of the sun drawing near the shore, and looking earnestly about her, as if afraid of being discovered. When she perceives any person on shore, she seeks for another place; but if otherwise, she lands when it is dark, and goes to take a survey of the sand where she designs to lay. Having marked the spot, she goes back without laying, for that night, to the ocean again; but the next night returns to deposit a part of her burden. She begins by working and digging in the sand with her fore-feet till she has made a round hole, a foot broad and a foot and a half deep, just at the place a little above where the water reaches highest. This done, she lays eighty or ninety eggs at a time, each as big as a hen's egg, and as round as a ball. She continues laying about the space of an hour; during which time, if a cart were driven over her, she would not be induced to stir.

The eggs are covered with a tough white skin, like wetted parchment. When she has done laying, she covers the hole so dexterously, that it is no easy matter to find the place; and those must be accustomed to the search to make the discovery. When the turtle has done laying she returns to the sea, and leaves her eggs to be hatched by the heat of the sun. At the end of fifteen days she lays about the same number of eggs again; and at the end of another fifteen days she repeats the same; three times in all, using the same precautions every time for safety.

In about twenty-four or twenty-five days after laying, the eggs are hatched by the heat of the sun; and the young turtles being about as big as quails, are seen bursting from the sand, as if earth-born, and running directly to the sea, with instinct only for their guide: but, to their great misfortune, it often happens that, their strength being small, the surges of the sea, for some few days, beat them back upon the shore. Thus exposed, they remain a prey to thousands of birds that then haunt the coasts; and these stooping down upon them carry off the greatest part, and sometimes the whole brood, before they have strength sufficient to withstand the waves, or dive to the bottom. Helbigius informs us, that they have still another enemy to fear, which is no other than the parent that produced them, that waits for their arrival at the edge of the deep, and devours as many as she can. This circumstance, however, demands further confirmation; though nothing is more certain than that the crocodile acts in the same unnatural manner.*

When the turtles have done laying, they then return to their accustomed places of feeding. Upon their outset to the shore where they breed, they are always fat and healthy; but upon their return, they are weak, lean, and unfit to be eaten. They are seldom, therefore, molested upon their retreat; but the great art is to seize them when arrived, or to intercept their arrival. In these uninhabited islands, to which the green turtle chiefly resorts, the men that go to take them land about night-fall, and without making and noise, (for these animals, though without any external

* This account of the Turtle's preying upon its young is altogether fabulous. These animals feed entirely upon those vast masses of marine plants cast upon the coasts, and probably upon the numerous living substances floating on shore with these plants.

opening of the ear, hear very distinctly; there being an auditory conduit that opens into the mouth,) lie close while they see the female turtle coming on shore. They let her proceed to her greatest distance from the sea; and then, when she is most busily employed in scratching a hole in the sand, they sally out and surprise her. Their manner is to turn her upon her back, which utterly incapacitates her from moving; and yet, as the creature is very strong, and struggles very hard, two men find it no easy matter to lay her over. When thus secured they go to the next; and in this manner, in less than three hours, they have been known to turn forty or fifty turtles, each of which weighs from a hundred and fifty to two hundred pounds. Labat assures us, that when the animal is in this helpless situation, it is heard to sigh very heavily, and even to shed tears.

At present, from the great appetite that man has discovered for this animal, they are not only thinned in their numbers, but are also grown much more shy. There are several other ways, therefore, contrived for taking them. One is, to seize them when coupled together, at the breeding season, when they are very easily approached, and as easily seen; for these animals, though capable of living for some time under water, yet rise every eight or ten minutes to breathe. As soon as they are thus perceived, two or three people draw near them in a canoe, and slip a noose either round their necks or one of their feet. If they have no line, they lay hold of them by the neck, where they have no shell, with their hands only; and by this means they usually catch them both together. But sometimes the female escapes, being more shy than the male.

Another way of taking them is by the harpoon, either when they are playing on the surface of the water, or feeding at the bottom; when the harpoon is skilfully darted, it sticks fast in the shell of the back; the wood then disengages from the iron, and the line is long enough for the animal to take its range; for if the harpooner should attempt at once to draw the animal into his boat till it is weakened by its own struggling, it would probably get free. Thus the turtle struggles hard to get loose, but all in vain; for they take care the line fastened to the harpoon shall be strong enough to hold it.

There is yet another way, which, though seemingly

awkward, is said to be attended with very great success. A good diver places himself at the head of the boat; and when the turtles are observed, which they sometimes are in great numbers, asleep on the surface, he immediately quits the vessel, at about fifty yards distance, and keeping still under water, directs his passage to where the turtle was seen, and, coming up beneath, seizes it by the tail; the animal awaking struggles to get free; and by this both are kept at the surface until the boat arrives to take them in.

CHAP. IV.

OF THE SHELL OF TESTACEOUS FISHES.

ONE is apt to combine very dissimilar objects in the same group, when hurried into the vortex of method: No two animals are more unlike each other than the whale and the limpet, the tortoise and the oyster. Yet, as these animals must find some place in the picture of animated nature, it is best to let them rest in the station where the generality of mankind have assigned them; and as they have been willing to give them all from their abode the name of fishes, it is wisest in us to conform.

But before I enter into an history of shell-fish, it may not be improper to observe, that naturalists, who have treated on this part of history, have entirely attended to outward forms; and, as in many other instances, forsaking the description of the animal itself, have exhausted all their industry in describing the habitation. In consequence of this radical error, we have volumes written upon the subject of shells; and very little said on the history of shell-fish. The life of these industrious creatures, that, for the most part, creep along the bottom, or immoveably wait till driven as the waves happen to direct, is almost entirely unknown. The wreathing of their shells, or the spots with which they are tinged, have been described with a most disgusting prolixity; but their appetites and their combats, their escapes and humble arts of subsistence, have been utterly neglected.

As I have only undertaken to write the history of animated nature, the variety of shells, and their peculiar spots or blemishes, do not come within my design. However, the manner in which shells are formed is a part of natural history connected with my plan, as it presupposes vital force or industry in the animal that forms them.

The shell may be considered as an habitation supplied by nature. It is a hard stony substance, made up somewhat in the manner of a wall. Part of the stony substance the animal derives from outward objects, and the fluids of the animal itself furnish the cement. These united make that firm covering which shell-fish generally reside in till they die.

But, in order to give a more exact idea of the manner in which sea-shells are formed, we must have recourse to an animal that lives upon land, with the formation of whose shell we are best acquainted. This is the garden-snail, that carries its box upon its back, whose history Swammerdam has taken such endless pains to describe. As the manner of the formation of this animal's shell extends to that of all others that have shells, whether they live upon land or in the water, it will be proper to give it a place before we enter upon the history of testaceous fishes.

To begin with the animal in its earliest state, and trace the progress of its shell from the time it first appears—The instant the young snail leaves the egg, it carries its shell or its box on its back. It does not leave the egg till it is arrived at a certain growth, when its little habitation is sufficiently hardened. This beginning of the shell is not much bigger than a pin's head, but grows in a very rapid manner, having at first but two circumvolutions, for the rest are added as the snail grows larger. In proportion as the animal increases in size, the circumvolutions of the shell increase also, until the number of these volutes come to be five, which is never exceeded.

The part where the animal enlarges its shell is at the mouth, to which it adds in proportion as it finds itself stunted in its habitation below. Being about to enlarge its shell, it is seen with its little teeth biting and clearing away the scaly skin that grows at the edges. It is sometimes seen to eat those bits it thus takes off; at other times it only

cleans away the margin when covered with films, and then adds another rim to its shell.

For the purposes of making the shell, which is natural to the animal, and without which it could not live three days, its whole body is furnished with glands, from the orifices of which flows out a kind of slimy fluid, like small spiders' threads, which join together in one common crust or surface, and in time condense and acquire a stony hardness. It is this slimy humour that grows into a membrane, and afterwards a stony skin: nor can it have escaped any who have observed the track of a snail; that glistening substance which it leaves on the floor or the wall, is no other than the materials with which the animal adds to its shell, or repairs it when broken.

Now to exhibit in a more satisfactory manner the method in which the shell is formed—The snail bursts from its egg with its shell upon its back; the shell, though very simple, is the centre round which every succeeding convolution of the shell is formed, by new circles added to the first. As the body of the snail can be extended no where but to the aperture, the mouth of the shell only can, of consequence, receive augmentation. The substance of which the shell is composed is chiefly supplied by the animal itself, and is no more than a slimy fluid which hardens into bone. This fluid passes through an infinite number of little glands, till it arrives at the pores of the skin; but there it is stopped by the shell that covers the part below; and therefore is sent to the mouth of the shell, where it is wanted for enlargement. There the first layer of slime soon hardens; and then another is added, which hardens also, till in time the shell becomes as thick as is requisite for the animal's preservation. Thus every shell may be considered as composed of a number of layers of slime, which have entirely proceeded from the animal's own body.

But though this be the general opinion with regard to the formation of shells, I cannot avoid thinking there are still other substances beside the animal's own slime which go to the composition of its shell, or at least to its external coat, which is ever different from the internal. The substances I mean are the accidental concretions of earthy or saline parts, which adhere to the slimy matter upon its first emission.

By adopting this theory, we can more satisfactorily account for the various colours of the shell, which cannot be supposed to take its tincture from the animal's body, as is the usual opinion; for all the internal parts of the shell are but of one white colour; it is only the outermost layer of the shell that is so beautifully varied, so richly tinted with that variety of colours we behold in the cabinets of the curious. If the external coat be scaled off, as Mr. Argenville asserts, all the inner substances will be found but of one simple colouring; and consequently the animal's own juices can give only one colour; whereas we see some shells stained with a hundred.

The usual way of accounting for the different colouring of shells, which seems to me erroneous, is this: in the body of every one of these animals, several streaks are discerned of a different colour from the rest. "This variety," say they, "is an incontestible proof that the juices flowing from those parts will be also of a different hue; and will consequently tinge that part of the shell which their slime composes of a different colour." But this system, as was observed before, is overthrown by the fact, which discovers that only the outer surface of the shell is tinged; whereas by this it would have been coloured throughout; nay, by this system, the internal parts of the shell would be stained with the most vivid colouring, as being least exposed to the external injuries of the element where it is placed. But the truth is, the animal residing in the shell has none of these various colours thus talked of: its slime is a simple pellucid substance; and the only marblings which appear in its body, are the colour of the food, which is seen through its transparent intestines. We must, therefore, account for the various colouring of its shell upon a different principle.

If, as I said, we examine the cabinets of the curious, we shall find shells with various and beautiful colouring; we shall find them generally furnished with a white ground, tinted with red, yellow, brown, green; and several other shades and lovely mixtures, but never blue. Shells are of almost all colours but blue. The reason seems to be obvious; for blue is the colour which sea-water changes. A piece of silk, or a feather, of this colour, put into an infusion of salt, urine, or nitre, lose their tint entirely. Now

may not this give us a hint with respect to the operation of Nature in colouring her shells? May we not from hence conclude, that sea-water is efficacious in giving colour, or taking it away? That, to produce colour, the animal not only furnishes its juices, but the sea or the earth that mixture of substance which is to unite with them? Neither the animal slime alone, nor the external earthy or saline substances alone, could produce colours; but both united, produce an effect which neither, separately, was possessed of. Thus shells assume every colour but blue; and that sea-water, instead of producing, would be apt to destroy.

From hence, therefore, it appears, that the animal does not alone tincture its own shell; but that external causes co-operate in contributing to its beauty. It is probable that, from the nature of its food, or from other circumstances unknown to us, the external layers of its slime may be of different consistences; so, as when joined with the particles of earth or salt that are accidentally united with them from without, they assume various and beautiful hues. But the internal layers, which receive no foreign admixture, still preserve the natural colour of the animal, and continue white without any variation.

Thus far we see that the animal is not wholly the agent in giving beauty and colouring to its shell: but it seems otherwise with respect to its convolutions, its prominences, and general form. These entirely depend upon the art of the animal; or rather upon its instincts; which, in the same kinds, are ever invariable. The shell generally bears some rude resemblance to the body upon which it has been moulded. Thus, it is observable in all sea-shells, that if the animal has any tumour, or excrescence on its body, it creates likewise a swelling in that part of the incrustation to which it corresponds. When the animal begins to alter its position, and to make new additions to its apartments, the same protuberance which had raised the shell before in one part, swells it again at some little distance; by which means we see the same inequality, in a spiral line, all round the shell. Sometimes these tumours of the animal are so large, or so pointed, that those which rise over them in the incrustation appear like horns: after this the animal disengages itself from its first cavities; and then, by fresh evacuations, assumes a new set of horns; and so increases the

says,* “ than to view Nature in all her irregularities, and sporting in her variety of shells! Such a difference of colour do they exhibit! such a difference of figure! flat, concave, long, lunated, drawn round in a circle, the orbit cut in two! some are seen with a rising on the back, some smooth, some wrinkled, toothed, streaked, the point variously intorted, the mouth pointing like a dagger, folded back, bent inwards! all these variations, and many more, furnish at once novelty, elegance, and speculation.”

With respect to the figure of shells, Aristotle has divided them into three kinds: and his method is, of all others, the most conformable to nature. These are, first, the *univalve*, or *turbinated*, which consist of one piece, like the box of a snail; secondly, the *bivalve*, consisting of two pieces, united by a hinge, like an oyster; and, thirdly, the *multivalve*, consisting of more than two pieces, as the Acorn-shell, which has not less than twelve pieces that go to its composition. All these kinds are found in the sea at different depths, and are valuable in proportion to their scarceness or beauty.

From the variety of the colours and figures of shells, we may pass to that of their place and situation. Some are found in the sea; some in fresh-water rivers; some alive upon land; and a still greater quantity dead in the bowels of the earth. But wherever shells are found, they are universally known to be composed of one and the same substance. They are formed of an animal or calcareous earth, that ferments with vinegar and other acids, and that burns into lime, and will not easily melt into glass. Such is the substance of which they are composed; and of their spoils, many philosophers think that a great part of the surface of the earth is composed at present. It is supposed by them, that chalks, marls, and all such earths as ferment with vinegar, are nothing more than a composition of shells, decayed, and crumbled down to one uniform mass.

Sea-shells are either found in the depths of the ocean, or they are cast empty, and forsaken of their animals, upon shore. Those which are fished up from the deep, are called by the Latin name *Pelagii*; those that are cast upon shore are called *Littorales*. Many of the *pelagii* are never seen upon shore; they continue in the depths where they are bred; and we owe their capture only to accident. These,

* Plin. ix. 33.

number in proportion to its growth. If, on the other hand, the body happens to be channelled, the shell that covers it will be channelled likewise; if there be any protuberances in the body, which wind in a spiral line about it, the shell will likewise have its tumours and cavities winding round to the end.

In this manner, as the animals are of various forms, the shells exhibit an equal variety. Indeed, the diversity is so great, and the figures and colours so very striking, that several persons, with a kind of harmless indolence, have made the arrangement of them the study and the business of their lives. Those who consult their beauty alone, take care to have them polished, and to have an external crust, or periosteum, as Swammerdam calls it, scoured off from their surfaces by spirit of salt. But there are others that, with more learned affectation, keep them exactly in the state in which they have been found, with their precious crust still round them. The expense men have sometimes been at, in making such collections, is amazing; and some shells, such as the Stairs-shell, or the Admiral-shell, are not more precious for their scarceness, than pearls are for their beauty. Indeed, it is the scarcity, and not the beauty of the object, that determines the value of all natural curiosities. Those shells that offer but little beauty to the ignorant are often the most precious; and those shells which an unlearned spectator would stop to observe with admiration, one accustomed to the visitation of cabinets would pass over with disdain.—These collections, however, have their use; not only by exhibiting the vast variety of Nature's operations, but also by exciting our curiosity to the consideration of the animals that form them. A mind that can find innocent entertainment in these humble contemplations is well employed; and, as we say of children, is kept from doing mischief. Although there may be nobler occupations than that of considering the convolutions of a shell, yet there may be some who want the ambition to aspire after such arduous pursuits; there may be some unfit for them; there may be some who find their ambition fully gratified by the praise which the collectors of shells bestow upon each other. Indeed, for a day or two, there is no mind that a cabinet of shells cannot furnish with pleasing employment. "What can be more gratifying," as Pliny

says,* “ than to view Nature in all her irregularities, and sporting in her variety of shells! Such a difference of colour do they exhibit! such a difference of figure! flat, concave, long, lunated, drawn round in a circle, the orbit cut in two! some are seen with a rising on the back, some smooth, some wrinkled, toothed, streaked, the point variously intorted, the mouth pointing like a dagger, folded back, bent inwards! all these variations, and many more, furnish at once novelty, elegance, and speculation.”

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* Plin. ix. 33.

therefore, are the most scarce shells, and, consequently, the most valuable. The littorales are more frequent, and such as are of the same kind with the pelagii are not so beautiful. As they are often empty and forsaken, and as their animal is dead, and, perhaps, putrid in the bottom of the shell, they, by this means, lose the whiteness and the brilliancy of their colouring. They are not, unfrequently, also found eaten through, either by worms, or by each other; and they are thus rendered less valuable: but what decreases their price still more is, when they are scaled and worn by lying too long empty at the bottom, or exposed upon the shore. Upon the whole, however, sea-shells exceed either land or fossil-shells in beauty; they receive the highest polish, and exhibit the most brilliant and various colouring.

Fresh-water shells are neither so numerous, so various, nor so beautiful, as those belonging to the sea. They want that solidity which the others have; their *clavicle*, as it is called, is neither so prominent nor so strong; and not having a saline substance to tinge the surface of the shell, the colours are obscure. In fresh-water there are but two kinds of shells, namely, the bivalved and the turbinated.

Living land-shells are more beautiful, though not so various, as those of fresh water; and some not inferior to sea-shells in beauty. They are, indeed, but of one kind, namely, the turbinated; but in that there are found four or five very beautiful varieties.

Of fossil, or, as they are called, *extraneous* shells, found in the bowels of the earth, there are great numbers, and as great a variety. In this class there are as many kinds as in the sea itself. There are found the turbinated, the bivalve, and the multivalve kinds; and of all these, many, at present, are not to be found even in the ocean. Indeed, the number is so great, and the varieties so many, that it was long the opinion of naturalists, that they were merely the capricious productions of nature, and had never given retreat to animals whose habitations they resembled. They were found, not only of various kinds, but in different states of preservation; some had the shell entire, composed, as in its primitive state, of a white calcareous earth, and filled with earth, or even empty; others were found with the shell entire, but filled with a substance

which was petrified by time; others, and these in great numbers, were found with the shell entirely mouldered away, but the petrified substance that filled it still exhibiting the figure of the shell; others still, that had been lodged near earth or stone, impressed their print upon these substances, and left the impression, though they themselves were decayed: lastly, some shells were found half mouldered away, their parts scaling off from each other in the same order in which they were originally formed. However, these different stages of the shell, and even their fermenting with acids, were, at first, insufficient to convince those who had before assigned them a different origin. They were still considered as accidentally and sportively formed, and deposited in the various repositories where they were found, but no way appertaining to any part of animated nature. This put succeeding inquirers upon more minute researches; and they soon began to find, that often, where they dug up petrified shells or teeth, they could discover the petrified remains of some other bony parts of the body. They found that the shells, which were taken from the earth, exhibited the usual defects and mischances which the same kind are known to receive at sea. They showed them not only tinctured with a salt-water crust, but pierced in a peculiar manner by the sea-worms, that make the shells of fishes their favourite food. These demonstrations were sufficient, at last, to convince all but a few philosophers, who died away, and whose erroneous systems died with them.

Every shell, therefore, wherever it is found, is now considered as the spoil of some animal, that once found shelter therein. It matters not by what unaccountable means they may have wandered from the sea; but they exhibit all, and the most certain marks of their origin. From their numbers and situation we are led to conjecture, that the sea reached the places where they are found; and from their varieties we learn how little we know of all the sea contains at present; as the earth furnishes many kinds which our most exact and industrious shell-collectors have not been able to fish up from the deep. It is most probable that thousands of different forms still remain at the bottom unknown; so that we may justly say with the philosopher, *Ea quæ scimus sunt pars minima eorum quæ ignoramus.*

It is well, however, for mankind, that the defect of our knowledge on this subject is, of all parts of learning, that which may be most easily dispensed with. An increase in the number of shells would throw but very few lights upon the history of the animals that inhabit them. For such information we are obliged to those men who contemplated something more than the outside of the objects before them. To Reaumur we are obliged for examining the manners of some with accuracy; but to Swammerdam for more. In fact, this Dutchman has lent an attention to those animals that almost exceeds credibility: he has excelled even the insects he dissected, in patience, industry, and perseverance. It was in vain that this poor man's father dissuaded him from what the world considered as a barren pursuit: it was in vain that an habitual disorder, brought on by his application, interrupted his efforts; it was in vain that mankind treated him with ridicule while living, as they suffered his works to remain long unprinted and neglected when dead: still the Dutch philosopher went on, peeping into unwholesome ditches, wading through fens, dissecting spiders, and enumerating the blood-vessels of a snail: like the bee, whose heart he could not only distinguish but dissect, he seemed instinctively impelled by his ruling passion, although he found nothing but ingratitude from man, and though his industry was apparently becoming fatal to himself. From him I will take some of the leading features in the history of those animals which breed in shells; previously taking my division from Aristotle, who, as was said above, divides them into three classes: the Turbinated, or those of the Snail-kind; the Bivalved, or those of the Oyster-kind; and the Multivalved, or those of the Acorn-shell kind. Of each I will treat in distinct chapters.

CHAP. V.

OF TURBINATED SHELL-FISH OF THE SNAIL KIND.

To conceive the manner in which those animals subsist that are hid from us at the bottom of the deep, we must again have recourse to one of a similar nature and formation that we know. The history of the garden-snail has been more copiously considered than that of the elephant;

and its anatomy is as well, if not better, known: however, not to give any one object more room in the general picture of Nature than it is entitled to, it will be sufficient to observe, that the snail is surprisingly fitted for the life it is formed to lead. It is furnished with the organs of life in a manner almost as complete as the largest animal: with a tongue, brain, salival ducts, glands, nerves, stomach, and intestines; liver, heart, and blood-vessels: besides this, it has a purple bag that furnishes a red matter to different parts of the body, together with strong muscles that hold it to the shell, and which are hardened, like tendons, at their insertion.

But these it possesses in common with other animals. We must now see what it has peculiar to itself. The first striking peculiarity is, that the animal has got its eyes on the points of its largest horns. When the snail is in motion, four horns are distinctly seen: but the two uppermost, and longest, deserve peculiar consideration, both on account of the various motions with which they are endued, as well as their having their eyes fixed at the extreme ends of them. These appear like two blackish points at their ends. When considered as taken out of the body, they are of a bulbous or turnip-like figure; they have but one coat; and the three humours which are common in the eyes of other animals, namely, the vitreous, the aqueous, and the crystalline, are, in these, very indistinctly seen. The eyes the animal can direct to different objects at pleasure, by a regular motion out of the body; and sometimes it hides them by a very swift contraction into the belly. Under the small horns is the animal's mouth; and though it may appear too soft a substance to be furnished with teeth, yet it has not less than eight of them, with which it devours leaves, and other substances, seemingly harder than itself; and with which it sometimes bites off pieces of its own shell.

But what is most surprising in the formation of this animal are the parts that serve for generation. Every snail is at once male and female; and while it impregnates another, is itself impregnated in turn. The vessels, supplying the fluid for this purpose are placed chiefly in the fore part of the neck, and extend themselves over the body; but the male and female organs of generation are always found

united, and growing together. There is a large opening on the right side of the neck, which serves for very different purposes. As a vent, it gives a passage to the excrements; as a mouth, it serves for an opening for respiration; and also as an organ of generation, it dilates when the desire of propagation begins. Within this each animal has those parts, or something similar thereto, which continue the kind.

For some days before coition, the snails gather together, and lie quite near each other, eating very little in the mean time; but they settle their bodies in such a posture, that the neck and head are placed upright. In the mean time, the apertures on the side of the neck being greatly dilated, two organs, resembling intestines, are seen issuing from them, which some have thought to be the instruments of generation. Beside the protrusion of these, each animal is possessed of another peculiarity; for, from the same aperture, they launch forth a kind of dart at each other, which is pretty hard, barbed, and ending in a very sharp point. This is performed when the apertures approach each other; and then the one is seen to shoot its weapon, which is received by the other, though it sometimes falls to the ground; some minutes after, the snail which received the weapon, darts one of its own at its antagonist, which is received in like manner. They then softly approach still nearer, and apply their bodies one to the other, as closely as the palms and fingers of the hands when grasped together. At that time the horns are seen variously moving in all directions; and this sometimes for three days together. The coupling of these animals is generally thrice repeated, at intervals of fifteen days each; and, at every time, a new dart is mutually emitted.

At the expiration of eighteen days, the snails produce their eggs, at the opening of the neck, and hide them in the earth with the greatest solicitude and industry. These eggs are in great numbers, round, white, and covered with a soft shell: they are also stuck to each other by an imperceptible slime, like a bunch of grapes, of about the size of a small pea.

When the animal leaves the egg, it is seen with a very small shell on its back, which has but one convolution; but in proportion as it grows, the shell increases in the

number of its circles. The shell always receives its additions at the mouth, the first centre still remaining; the animal sending forth from its body that slime which hardens into a stony substance, and still is fashioned into similar volutions. The garden-snail seldom exceeds four rounds and a half; but some of the sea-snails arrive even at ten.

The snail, thus fitted with its box, which is light and firm, finds itself defended, in a very ample manner, from all external injury. Whenever it is invaded, it is but retiring into this fortress, and waiting patiently till the danger is over. Nor is it possessed only of a power of retreating into its shell, but of mending it when broken. Sometimes these animals are crushed seemingly to pieces, and, to all appearance, utterly destroyed; yet still they set themselves to work, and, in a few days, mend all their numerous breaches. The same substance by which the shell is originally made goes to the re-establishment of the ruined habitation. But all the junctures are very easily seen, for they have a fresher colour than the rest; and the whole shell, in some measure, resembles an old coat patched with new pieces. They are sometimes seen with eight or ten of these patches; so that the damage must have been apparently irreparable. Still, however, though the animal is possessed of the power of mending its shell, it cannot, when come to its full growth, make a new one. Swammerdan tried the experiment; he stripped a snail of its shell, without hurting any of the blood-vessels, retaining that part of the shell where the muscles were inserted; but it died in three days after it was stripped of its covering: not, however, without making efforts to build up a new shell; for, before its death it pressed out a certain membrane round the whole surface of its body. This membrane was entirely of the shelly nature, and was intended, by the animal, as a supply towards a new one.

As the snail is furnished with all the organs of life and sensation, it is not wonderful to see it very voracious. It chiefly subsists upon leaves of plants and trees; but is very delicate in its choice. When the animal moves to seek its food, it goes forward by means of that broad muscular skin which sometimes is seen projecting round the mouth of the shell; this is expanded before, and then contracted with a kind of undulating motion, like a man attempting to move

himself forward by one arm while lying on his belly. But the snail has another advantage, by which it not only smooths and planes its way, but also can ascend in the most perpendicular direction. This is by that slimy substance with which it is so copiously furnished, and which it emits wherever it moves. Upon this slime, as upon a kind of carpet, it proceeds slowly along, without any danger of wounding its tender body against the asperities of the pavement, by means of this it moves upwards to its food upon the trees; and by this descends without danger of falling, and breaking its shell by the shock.

The appetite of these animals is very great; and the damage gardeners in particular sustain from them, makes them employ every method for their destruction. Salt will destroy them, as well as soot; but a tortoise in a garden, is said, to banish them much more effectually.

At the approach of winter, the snail buries itself in the earth; or retires to some hole, to continue in a torpid state, during the severity of the season. It is sometimes seen alone, but more frequently in company in its retreat; several being usually found together, apparently deprived of life and sensation. For the purposes of continuing in greater warmth and security, the snail forms a cover or lid to the mouth of its shell with its slime, which stops it up entirely, and thus protects it from every external danger. The matter of which the cover is composed, is whitish, somewhat like plaster, pretty hard and solid, yet, at the same time, porous and thin, to admit air, which the animal cannot live without. When the cover is formed too thick, the snail then breaks a little hole in it, which corrects the defect of that closeness, which proceeded from too much caution. In this manner, sheltered in its hole from the weather, defended in its shell by a cover, it sleeps during the winter; and, for six or seven months, continues without food or motion, until the genial call of spring breaks its slumber, and excites its activity.

The snail, having slept for so long a season, wakes one of the first fine days of April, breaks open its cell, and sallies forth to seek for nourishment. It is not surprising that so long a fast should have thinned it, and rendered it very voracious. At first, therefore, it is not very difficult in the choice of its food; almost any vegetable that is

green seems welcome; but the succulent plants of the garden are chiefly grateful; and the various kinds of pulse are, at some seasons, almost wholly destroyed by their numbers. So great is the multiplication of snails in some years, that gardeners imagine they burst from the earth. A wet season is generally favourable to their production; for this animal cannot bear very dry seasons, or dry places, as they cause too great a consumption of its slime, without plenty of which it cannot subsist in health and vigour.*

Such are the most striking particulars in the history of this animal; and this may serve as a general picture, to which the manners and habitudes of the other tribes of this class may be compared and referred. These are, the sea-snail, of which naturalists have, from the apparent difference of their shells, mentioned fifteen kinds;† the fresh-water-snail, of which there are eight kinds; and the land-snail, of which there are five. These all bear a strong resemblance to the garden-snail, in the formation of their shell, in their hermaphrodite natures, in the slimy substance with which they are covered, in the formation of their intestines, and the disposition of the hole on the right side of the neck, which serves at once for the discharge of the fæces, for the lodging the instruments of generation, and for respiration, when the animal is under a necessity of taking in a new supply.

But, in nature, no two kinds of animals, however like each other in figure or conformation, are of manners entirely the same. Though the common garden-snail bears a very strong resemblance to that of fresh-water, and that

* In the Philosophical Transactions, the following well-attested instance of the wonderful tenaciousness of life in the snail is recorded. The father of Mr. Stuckey Simpson, a fellow of the Royal Society, and a lover of Natural History, left his son a small collection of natural curiosities, among which were the shells of some snails. About fifteen years after his father's death, in whose possession they had been some time, he gave a few of them to his son, then about ten years old. The boy put them into a flower-pot, which he filled with water; and the next day into a basin. Having occasion to use the basin, Mr. Simpson observed that the animals had come out of their shells. He examined the child, who assured him that they were the same he had given him, and said he had also a few more, which he brought. Mr. Simpson put one of these into water, and in an hour and a half observed that it had put out one of its horns and body, which it moved slowly, probably from weakness.

† D'Argenville's *Conchyliologie*.

of the sea, yet there are differences to be found, and those very considerable ones.

If we compare them with the fresh-water snail, though we shall find a general resemblance, yet there are one or two remarkable distinctions: and, first, the fresh-water snail, and, as I should suppose, all snails that live in water, are peculiarly furnished with a contrivance by Nature, for rising to the surface, or sinking to the bottom. The manner in which this is performed, is by opening and shutting the orifice on the right side of the neck, which is furnished with muscles for that purpose. The snail sometimes gathers this aperture into an oblong tube, and stretches or protends it above the surface of the water, in order to draw in or expel the air, as it finds occasion. This may not only be seen, but heard also by the noise which the snail makes in moving the water. By dilating this it rises; by compressing it the animal sinks to the bottom. This is effected somewhat in the manner in which little images of glass are made to rise or sink in water, by pressing the air contained at the mouth of the tubes, so that it shall drive the water into their hollow bodies, which, before, were filled only with air, and thus make them heavier than the element in which they swim. In this manner does the fresh water snail dive or swim, by properly managing the air contained in its body.

But what renders these animals far more worthy of notice is, that they are viviparous, and bring forth their young not only alive, but with their shells upon their backs. This seems surprising; yet it is incontestibly true: the young come to some degree of perfection in the womb of the parent; there they receive their stony coat; and from thence are excluded, with a complete apparatus for subsistence.

“On the twelfth of March,” says Swammerdam, “I began my observations upon this snail, and collected a great number of the kind, which I put into a large basin filled with rain-water, and fed, for a long time, with potter’s earth, dissolved in the water about them. On the thirteenth of the same month I opened one of these snails, when I found nine living snails in its womb: the largest of these were placed foremost, as the first candidate for exclusion. I put them into fresh-water, and they lived till the eighteenth of the same month, moving and swimming, like snails full grown:

may, their manner of swimming was much more beautiful." Thus, at whatever time of the year these snails are opened they are found pregnant with eggs, or with living snails; or with both together.

This striking difference between the fresh-water and the garden snail, obtains also in some of the sea kind; among which there are some that are found viviparous, while others lay eggs in the usual manner. Of this kind are one or two of the *Buccinums*; within which living young have been frequently found upon their dissection. In general, however, the rest of this numerous class bring forth eggs; from whence the animal bursts at a proper state of maturity, completely equipped with a house, which the moistness of the element where it resides does not prevent the inhabitant from enlarging. How the soft slime of the snail hardens, at the bottom of the sea, into the stony substance of a shell, is not easy to conceive! This slime must at least be possessed of very powerful petrifying powers.

All animals of the snail kind, as was observed before, are hermaphrodites; each containing the instruments of generation double. But some of the sea kinds copulate in a different manner from those of the garden. The one impregnates the other; but, from the position of the parts, is incapable of being impregnated by the same in turn. For this reason it is necessary for a third to be admitted as a partner in this operation: so that, while one impregnates that before it, another does the same office by this; which is itself impregnated by a fourth. In this manner, Mr. Adanson has seen vast numbers of sea-snails united together in a chain impregnating each other. The *Bulin* and the *Coret* perform the offices of male and female at the same time. The orifices in these are two, both separated from each other: the opening by which the animal performs the office of the male being at the origin of the horns; that by which it is passive, as the female, being farther down upon the neck. It may also be observed, as a general rule, that all animals that have this orifice, or verge, as some call it, on the right side, have their shells turned from the right to the left; on the contrary, those which have it on the left side, have their shells turned from left to right, in a contrary direction to the former.

But this is not the only difference between land and sea snails. Many of the latter entirely want horns; and none of them have above two. Indeed, if the horns of snails be furnished with eyes, and if, as some are willing to think, the length of the horn, like the tube of a telescope, assists vision, these animals that chiefly reside in the gloomy bottom of the deep, can have no great occasion for them. Eyes would be unnecessary to creatures whose food is usually concealed in the darkest places; and who, possessed of very little motion, are obliged to grope for what they subsist on. To such, I say, eyes would rather be an obstruction than an advantage; and, perhaps, even those that live upon land are without them.

Those that have seen the shells of sea-snails, need not be told that the animal which produces them is larger than those of the same denomination upon land. The sea seems to have the property of enlarging the magnitude of all its inhabitants; and the same proportion that a trout bears to a shark, is often seen to obtain between a shell bred upon the land, and one bred in the ocean. Its convolutions are more numerous. The garden-snail has but five turns at the most; in the sea-snail the convolutions are sometimes seen amounting to ten.

There is a difference also in the position of the mouth in the garden and the water snail. In the former, the mouth is placed crosswise, as in quadrupeds; furnished with jaw-bones, lips, and teeth. In most of the sea-snails, the mouth is placed longitudinally in the head; and in some obliquely, or on one side. Others, of the *Trochus* kind, have no mouth whatsoever; but are furnished with a trunk, very long in some kinds, and shorter in others.

Snails of the *Trochus* kind, furnished thus with an instrument of offence, deserve our particular attention. The trunk of the *Trochus* is fleshy, muscular, supple, and hollow. Its extremity is bordered with a cartilage, and toothed like a saw. The snails that are provided with this may be considered as the predacious tribe among their fellows of the bottom. They are among snails what the tiger, the eagle, or the shark, is among beasts, birds, or fishes. The whole race of shelled animals avoid their approach; for their habitations, however powerfully and strongly built, though never so well fortified, yield to the superior force.

of these invaders. Though provided with a thick clumsy shell themselves, yet they move with greater swiftness at the bottom than most other shell-fish, and seize their prey with greater facility. No shell so large but they will boldly venture to attack; and, with their piercing auger-like trunk, will quickly bore it through. No efforts the other animal makes can avail: it expands itself, and rises to the surface; but the enemy rises with it: it again sinks to the bottom, but still its destroyer closely adheres. In this manner the carnivorous shell-fish, as some naturalists call it, sticks for several days, nay, weeks, to its prey, until, with its trunk, it has sucked out all the substance, or until it drops off, when the other begins to putrefy.

Thus it would seem, throughout nature, that no animal is so well defended but that others are found capable of breaking in upon its intrenchments. The garden-snail seems tolerably well guarded; but the wall of its shell is paper itself, in comparison with that which fortifies some of the sea-snail kind. Beside this thick shell, many of them are also furnished with a lid, which covers the mouth of the shell, and which opens and shuts at the animal's pleasure. When the creature hunts for food, it opens its box, gropes or swims about; and, when satisfied, drops its lid, and sinks to the bottom: there it might be supposed to remain in perfect security; but the trochus soon finds the way to break into the thickest part of its inclosure, and quickly destroys it with the most fatal industry.

The being liable to the attacks of the trochus seems to be a calamity to which most of this tribe are subject. Scarce a shell is met with entire and sound to the end of its convolutions; but particularly the thinnest shells are the most subject to be thus invaded. As their shells are easily pierced, the predatory shell-fish, or the sea-worm, chiefly seek them for subsistence; and of those thin paper-like shells, not one in a hundred is found that has not suffered some disaster. As they are lighter than other shell-fish, they swim with greater ease; and this is the chief method of avoiding their heavier thick-shelled pursuers. The food of all snails properly lies at the bottom; when, therefore, the nautilus, or other thin-shelled fish, are seen busily swimming at the surface, it may be that, instead of sporting or sunning

hemselves, as some are apt to suppose, they are actually labouring to escape their most deadly pursuers.

Of all sea-snails, that which is most frequently seen swimming upon the surface, and whose shell is the thinnest, and most easily pierced, is the nautilus. Whether, upon these occasions, it is employed in escaping its numerous enemies at the bottom, or seeking for food at the surface, I will not venture to decide. It seems most probable, that the former is the cause of its frequently appearing; for, upon opening the stomach, it is found to contain chiefly that food which it finds at the bottom. This animal's industry, therefore, may be owing to its fears: and all those arts of sailing which it has taught mankind, may have been originally the product of necessity. But the nautilus is too famous not to demand a more ample description. Although there be several species of the nautilus, yet they all may be divided into two: the one with a white shell, as thin as paper, which it often is seen to quit, and again to resume; the other with a thicker shell, sometimes of a beautiful mother-of-pearl colour, and that quits its shell but rarely. This shell, outwardly, resembles that of a large snail, but is generally six or eight inches across: within it is divided into forty partitions, that communicate with each other by doors, if I may so call them, through which one could not thrust a goose-quill: almost the whole internal part of the shell is filled by the animal; the body of which, like its habitation, is divided into as many parts as there are chambers in its shell: all the parts of its body communicate with each other, through the doors or openings, by a long blood-vessel, which runs from the head to the tail: thus the body of the animal, if taken out of the shell, may be likened to a number of soft bits of flesh, of which there are forty, threaded upon a string. From this extraordinary conformation, one would not be apt to suppose that the nautilus sometimes quitted its shell, and returned to it again; yet nothing, though seemingly more impossible is more certain. The manner by which it contrives to disengage every part of its body from so intricate an habitation, by which it makes a substance, to appearance as thick as one's wrist, pass through forty doors, each of which would scarcely admit a goose-quill, is not yet discovered: but

the fact is certain; for the animal is often found without its shell; and the shell more frequently destitute of the animal. It is most probable, that it has a power of making the substance of one section of its body remove up into that which is next; and thus, by multiplied removals, it gets free.*

But this, though very strange, is not the peculiarity for which the nautilus has been the most distinguished. Its "spreading the thin oar," and "catching the flying gale," to use the poet's description of it, has chiefly excited human curiosity. These animals, particularly those of the white light kind, are chiefly found in the Mediterranean; and scarcely any who have sailed on that sea, but must often have seen them. When the sea is calm, they are observed floating on the surface; some spreading their little sail; some rowing with their feet, as if for life and death; and others still, floating upon their mouths, like a ship with the keel upward. If taken while thus employed, and examined, the extraordinary mechanism of their limbs for sailing will appear more manifest. The nautilus is furnished with eight feet, which issue near the mouth, and may as properly be called barbs: these are connected to each other by a thin skin, like that between the toes of a duck, but much thinner and more transparent. Of these eight feet thus connected, six are short, and these are held up as sails to catch the wind in sailing; the two others are longer, and are kept in the water, serving like paddles. to steer their course by. When the weather is quite calm, and the animal is pursued from below, it is then seen expanding only a part of its sail, and rowing with the rest: whenever it is interrupted, or fears danger from above, it instantly furls the sail, catches in all its oars, turns its shell

* The real Paper Nautilus, or Argonaut, has a spiral, boat-shaped, extremely thin, shell, with only a single cell. The animal which inhabits it, and which in the early ages of society was supposed to have suggested the original idea of navigation, very much resembles the cuttle fish. It has eight arms, two of which are furnished at their extremities with an oval membrane, which it can at pleasure lift up and expand to the gale, while the other six hang over the sides of the shell, and are used in the manner of oars. The large chambered nautilus with many cells, and of which drinking vessels are made, is a totally distinct animal, living at the bottom of the sea, and without any apparatus to keep it floating on the surface.

mouth downward, and instantly sinks to the bottom. Sometimes also it is seen pumping the water from its leaking hulk; and, when unfit for sailing, deserts its shell entirely. The forsaken hulk is seen floating along, till it dashes, by a kind of shipwreck, upon the rocks or the shore.

From the above description, I think we may consider this animal rather as attempting to save itself from the attacks of its destroyers, than as rowing in pursuit of food. Certain it is, that no creature of the deep has more numerous and more powerful enemies. Its shell is scarcely ever found in perfect preservation; but is generally seen to bear some marks of hostile invasion. Its little arts, therefore, upon the surface of the water, may have been given it for protection; and it may be thus endued with comparative swiftness, to avoid the crab, the sea-scorpion, the trochus, and all the slower predacious reptiles that lurk for it at the bottom of the water.

From this general view of snails, they appear to be a much more active animated tribe, than from their figure one would at first conceive. They seem to an inattentive spectator, as mere inert masses of soft flesh, rather loaded than covered with a shell, scarcely capable of motion, and insensible to all the objects around them. When viewed more closely, they are found to be furnished with the organs of life and sensation in tolerable perfection: they are defended with armour that is at once both light and strong; they are as active as their necessities require; and are possessed of appetites more poignant than those of animals that seem much more perfectly formed. In short, they are a fruitful industrious tribe; furnished, like all other animals, with the powers of escape and invasion: they have their pursuits and their enmities; and, of all creatures of the deep, they have most to fear from each other.

CHAP. VI.

OF BIVALVED SHELL-FISH, OR SHELLS OF THE OYSTER KIND.

It may seem whimsical to make a distinction between the animal perfections of turbinated and bivalved shell-fish; or to grant a degree of superiority to the snail above the oyster. Yet this distinction strongly and apparently obtains in nature; and we shall find the bivalved tribe of

animals in every respect inferior to those we have been describing. Inferior in all their sensations; inferior in their powers of motion; but particularly inferior in their system of animal generation. The snail tribe, as we saw, are hermaphrodite, but require the assistance of each other for fecundation; all the bivalve tribe are hermaphrodite in like manner, but they require no assistance from each other towards impregnation; and a single mussel or oyster, if there were no other in the world, would quickly replenish the ocean. As the land-snail, from its being best known, took the lead in the former class, so the fresh-water mussel, for the same reason, may take the lead in this. The life and manners of such as belong to the sea will be best displayed in the comparison.

The mussel, as is well known, whether belonging to fresh or salt-water, consists of two equal shells, joined at the back by a strong muscular ligament, that answers all the purposes of a hinge. By the elastic contraction of these, the animal can open its shells at pleasure, about a quarter of an inch from each other. The fish is fixed to either shell by four tendons, by means of which it shuts them close, and keeps its body firm from being crushed by any shock against the walls of its own habitation. It is furnished, like all other animals of this kind, with vital organs, though these are situated in a very extraordinary manner. It has a mouth furnished with two fleshy lips; its intestine begins at the bottom of the mouth, passes through the brain, and makes a number of circumvolutions through the liver; on leaving this organ, it goes on straight into the heart, which it penetrates, and ends in the anus; near which the lungs are placed, and through which it breathes, like those of the snail kind; and in this manner its languid circulation is carried on.*

But the organs of generation are what most deserve to excite our curiosity. These consist in each mussel of two ovaries, which are the female part of its furniture, and of two seminal vessels, resembling what are found in the male. Each ovary and each seminal vessel, has its own proper canal: by the ovary-canal the eggs descend to the anus; and there also the seminal canals send their fluids to impregnate them. By this contrivance, one single animal

* M. Mery. Anat. des Moules d'Etang.

suffices for the double purposes of generation; and the eggs are excluded and impregnated by itself alone.

As the mussel is thus furnished with a kind of self-creating power, there are few places where it breeds that it is not found in great abundance. The ovaries usually empty themselves of their eggs in spring, and they are replenished in autumn. For this reason they are found empty in summer, and full in winter. They produce in great numbers, as all bivalved shell-fish are found to do. The fecundity of the snail kind is trifling in comparison to the fertility of these. Indeed it may be asserted as a general rule in nature, that the more helpless and contemptible the animal, the more prolific it is always found. Thus all creatures that are incapable of resisting their destroyers, have nothing but their quick multiplication for the continuation of their existence.

The multitude of these animals in some places is very great; but from their defenceless state, the number of their destroyers are in equal proportion. The crab, the cray-fish, and many other animals, are seen to devour them; but the trochus is their most formidable enemy. When their shells are found deserted, if we then observe closely, it is most probable we shall find that the trochus has been at work in piercing them. There is scarcely one of them without a hole in it; and this probably was the avenue by which the enemy entered to destroy the inhabitant.

But notwithstanding the numbers of this creature's animated enemies, it seems still more fearful of the agitations of the element in which it resides; for if dashed against rocks, or thrown far on the beach, it is destroyed without a power of redress. In order to guard against these, which are to this animal the commonest and the most fatal accidents, although it has a power of slow motion, which I shall presently describe, yet it endeavours to become stationary, and to attach itself to any fixed object it happens to be near. For this purpose, it is furnished with a very singular capacity of binding itself by a number of threads to whatever object it approaches; and these Reaumur supposed is spun artificially, as spiders their webs which they fasten against a wall. Of this, however, later philosophers have found very great reason to doubt. It is therefore supposed that these threads, which are usually called the beard

of the mussel, are the natural growth of the animal's body, and by no means produced at pleasure. Indeed, the extreme length of this beard in some, which far exceeds the length of the body, seems impossible to be manufactured by the thrusting out and drawing in of the tongue, with the glutinous matter of which the French philosopher supposed those threads were formed. It is even found to increase with the growth of the animal; and as the mussel becomes larger and older, the beard becomes longer, and its filaments more strong.* Be this as it will, nothing is more certain than that the mussel is found attached by these threads to every fixed object; sometimes, indeed, for want of such an object, these animals are found united to each other; and though thrown into a lake separately, they are taken out in bunches of many together.

To have some fixed resting place where the mussel can continue, and take in its accidental food, seems the state that this animal chiefly desires. Its instrument of motion, by which it contrives to reach the object it wants to bind itself to, is that muscular substance resembling a tongue, which is found long in proportion to the size of the mussel. In some it is two inches long, in others not a third part of these dimensions. Thus the animal has a power of thrusting out of its shell; and with this it is capable of making a slight furrow in the sand at the bottom. By means of this furrow it can erect itself upon the edge of its shell; and thus continuing to make the furrow in proportion as it goes forward, it reaches out its tongue, that answers the purpose of an arm, and thus carries its shell edge-ways, as in a groove, until it reaches the point intended. There, where it determines to take up its residence, it fixes the ends of its beard, which are glutinous, to the rock or the object, whatever it be; and thus, like a ship at anchor, braves all the agitations of the water. Sometimes the animal is attached by a large number of threads; sometimes but by three or four, that seem scarce able to retain it. When the mussel is fixed in this manner, it lives upon the little earthy particles that the water transports to its shells, and perhaps the flesh of the most diminutive animals. However, it

* Mercier du Paty, sur le Bouchots à Moules. Tom. ii. de l'Academie de la Rochelle.

does not fail to grow considerably; and some of this kind have been found a foot long. I have seen the beards a foot and a half; and of this substance the natives of Palermo sometimes make gloves and stockings.

These shell-fish are found in lakes, rivers, and in the sea. Those of the lake often grow to a very large size; but they seem a solitary animal, and are found generally separate from each other. Those of rivers are not so large, but yet in greater abundance; but the sea-mussel of all others is perhaps the most plenty. These are often bred artificially in salt-water marshes that are overflowed by the tide; the fishermen throwing them in at the proper seasons; and there being undisturbed by the agitations of the sea, and not preyed upon by their powerful enemies at the bottom, they cast their eggs, which soon become perfect animals, and these are generally found in clusters of several dozen together. It requires a year for the peopling of a mussel bed; so that, if the number consists of forty thousand, a tenth part may annually be left for the peopling the bed anew. Mussels are taken from their beds from the month of July to October; and they are sold at a very moderate price.

From this animal the oyster differs very little, except in the thickness of its shell, and its greater imbecility. The oyster, like the mussel, is formed with organs of life and respiration, with intestines which are very voluminous, a liver, lungs, and heart. Like the mussel, it is self-impregnated; and the shell, which the animal soon acquires, serves it for its future habitation. Like the mussel, it opens its shell to receive the influx of water; and like that animal is strongly attached to its shells both above and below.

But it differs in many particulars. In the first place, its shells are not equal, the one being cupped, the other flat: upon the cupped shell it is always seen to rest; for if it lay upon the flat side it would then lose all its water. It differs also in the thickness of its shells, which are so strongly lined and defended, that no animal will attempt to pierce them. But though the oyster be secured from the attacks of the small reptiles at the bottom, yet it often serves as an object to which they are attached. Pipe-worms, and other little animals, fix their habitation to the oyster's sides, and in this manner continue to live in security.

Among the number of these is a little red worm, that is often found upon the shell; which some, from never seeing oysters copulate, erroneously supposed to be the male by which their spawn was impregnated.

The oyster differs also from the mussel, in being utterly unable to change its situation. The mussel, as we have observed, is capable of erecting itself on an edge, and going forward with a slow laborious motion. The oyster is wholly passive, and endeavours by all its powers to rest fixed to one spot at the bottom. It is entirely without that tongue which we saw answering the purposes of an arm in the other animal; but nevertheless is often attached very firmly to any object it happens to approach. Rocks, stones, pieces of timber, or sea-weeds, all seem proper to give it a fixture, and to secure it against the agitation of the waves. Nothing so common in the rivers of the tropical climates as to see oysters growing even amidst the branches of the forest. Many trees which grow along the banks of the stream often bend their branches into the water, and particularly the mangrove, which chiefly delights in a moist situation. To these the oysters hang in clusters, like apples upon the most fertile tree; and in proportion as the weight of the fish sinks the plant into the water, where it still continues growing, the number of oysters increase, and hang upon the branches. Thus there is nothing that these shell-fish will not stick to; they are often even found to stick to each other. This is effected by means of a glue proper to themselves, which, when it cements, the joining is as hard as the shell, and is as difficultly broken. The joining substance, however, is not always of glue; but the animal grows to the rocks, somewhat like the mussel, by threads; although these are only seen to take root in the shell, and not, as in the mussel, to spring from the body of the fish itself.*

Oysters usually cast their spawn in May, which at first appear like drops of candle-grease, and stick to any hard

* Oysters and Scallops, it is now known, have a small degree of locomotive power. When left by the tide, they open their shells to the full extent of the hinge, then shut it suddenly with a jerk, by which means it rises a little from the ground, and is carried to some small distance. The Scallop will, in this manner, lift itself some inches from the ground, and tumble itself over till it has regained the sea: it can likewise, in a calm sea, float itself on the surface of the water.

substance they fall upon. These are covered with a shell in two or three days; and in three years the animal is large enough to be brought to market. As they invariably remain in the places where they are laid, and as they grow without any other seeming food than the afflux of sea-water, it is the custom at Colchester, and other parts of the kingdom, where the tide settles in marshes on land, to pick up great quantities of small oysters along the shore, which, when first gathered, seldom exceed the size of a sixpence. These are deposited in beds where the tide comes in, and in two or three years grow to a tolerable size. They are said to be better tasted from being thus sheltered from the agitations of the deep; and a mixture of fresh water entering into these repositories, is said to improve their flavour, and to increase their growth and fatness.

The oysters, however, which are prepared in this manner, are by no means so large as those found sticking to rocks at the bottom of the sea, usually called *rock oysters*. These are sometimes found as broad as a plate, and are admired by some as excellent food. But what is the size of these compared to the oysters of the East-Indies, some of whose shells I have seen two feet over! The oysters found along the coast of Coromandel are capable of furnishing a plentiful meal to eight or ten men; but it seems universally agreed, that they are no way comparable to our's for delicacy of flavour.

Thus the mussel and the oyster appear to have but few distinctions, except in their shape and the power of motion in the former. Other bivalved shell-fish, such as the cockle, the scallop, and the razor-shell, have differences equally minute. The power of changing place, which some of them effect in a manner quite peculiar to themselves, makes their greatest difference. The scallop is particularly remarkable for its method of moving forward upon land, or swimming upon the surface of the water. When this animal finds itself deserted by the tide, it makes very remarkable efforts to regain the water, moving towards the sea in a most singular manner. It first gapes with its shell as widely as it can, the edges being often an inch asunder; then it shuts them with a jerk, and by this the whole animal rises five or six inches from the ground. It thus tumbles any how forward, and then renews the

operation until it has attained its journey's end. When in the water, it is capable of supporting itself upon the surface; and there opening and shutting its shells, it tumbles over and over, and makes its way with some celerity.

The Pivot, or Razor-shell, has a very different kind of motion. As the former moves laboriously and slowly forward, so the razor-shell has only a power of sinking point downward. The shells of this animal resemble nothing so much as the haft of a razor; and by this form it is better enabled to dive into the soft sand at the bottom. All the motions of this little animal are confined to sinking or rising a foot downwards or upwards in the sand, for it never leaves the spot where first it was planted. From time to time it is seen to rise about half way out of its hole; but if any way disturbed, it sinks perpendicularly down again. Just over the place where the razor buries itself, there is a small hole like a chimney, through which the animal breathes, or imbibes the sea-water. Upon the desertion of the tide, these holes are easily distinguished by the fishermen who seek for it; and their method of enticing the razor up from the depth of its retreat, is by sprinkling a little sea-salt upon the hole. This melting, no sooner reaches the razor below, than it rises instantly straight upwards, and shews about half its length above the surface. This appearance, however, is instantaneous; and if the fisher does not seize the opportunity, the razor buries itself with great ease to its former depth. There it continues secure; no salt can allure it a second time; but it remains unmolested, unless the fisher will be at the trouble of digging it out sometimes two feet below the surface.

Such are the minute differences between bivalved shell-fish; but in the great outlines of their nature they exactly resemble each other. It is particularly in this class of shell-fish that pearls are found in greatest abundance; and it is in the internal parts of those shells that are of a shining silvery colour, that these gems are usually generated; but the pearl is also found to breed as well in the mussel or the scallop as in the oyster. In fact, it is found in all bivalved shells, the insides of which resemble that well-known substance called mother-of-pearl.

Whether pearls be a disease or an accident in the animal is scarcely worth inquiry. The common opinion is, that

they are a kind of calculese concretion in the body of the animal, somewhat resembling a stone in the bladder, and are consequently to be considered as a disorder. It is said, in confirmation of this opinion, that those coasts upon which pearls are fished, are very unhealthy; and therefore most probably oysters share the general influence of the climate: it is also added, that those oysters in which pearls are found are always ill-tasted, which is a sign of their being unsound: and, lastly, it is asserted, that the pearl grows sometimes so big as to keep the shells of the animal from shutting, and that thus it dies by being exposed. It is easy to see the weakness of these assertions, which seem neither true nor amusing. To answer them in their own way: If a stone in the bladder be a disorder, a stone in the stomach of an ostrich is a benefit, and so it may be in the shell of an oyster. If the shores where the pearls are fished be unwholesome to man, that, instead of being disadvantageous, is so much the more lucky for the oyster. If the pearl oysters are the worst tasted, so are kites and ravens among birds; and yet we know that they are healthy and long-lived animals. If the oyster had ever its shell kept asunder by the pearl within it, that would be a disease indeed; but this, in reality, never happens; for the oyster that breeds a large pearl always breeds a large shell, and the shell itself indents to receive its impression. The pearl upon the whole seems bred from no disorder in the animal, but accidentally produced by the same matter that goes to form the shell. This substance, which is soft at first, quickly hardens; and thus, by successive coats, layer over layer, the pearl acquires its dimensions. If cut through, it will be found to consist of several coats, like an onion; and sometimes a small speck is seen in the middle, upon which the coats were originally formed.

All oysters, and most shell-fish, are found to contain pearls; but that which particularly obtains the name of the pearl oyster, has a large strong whitish shell, wrinkled and rough without, and within smooth and of a silver colour. From these the mother-of-pearl is taken, which is nothing more than the internal coats of the shell, resembling the pearl in colour and consistence. This is taken out, and shaped into that variety of utensils which are found so beautiful: but the pearl itself is chiefly prized; being

found but in few oysters, and generally adhering ; sometimes making a print in the body of the shell, sometimes at large within the substance of the fish.

There are a great number of pearl fisheries in America and Asia ; but as pearls bear a worse price than formerly, those of America are in a great measure discontinued. The most famous of all the Asiatic fisheries is in the Persian Gulf, near the isle of Bahren. There is another between the coast of Madura and the island of Ceylon ; and there was a third on the coast of Japan : but as these noble islanders have a contempt for jewels, and an abhorrence for such Europeans as come in pursuit of them, that fishery, which is thought to be the most valuable of all others, is discontinued. The diving business is now carried on only in those countries where the wretchedness of one part of mankind goes to support the magnificence of the other.

The chief fishery, as was said, is carried on in the Persian Gulf, and the most valuable pearls are brought from thence. The value of these jewels increases not only in proportion to their size, but also their figure and colour ; for some pearls are white, others are yellowish, others of a lead colour ; and some affirm they have been found as black as jet. What it is that gives these different tinctures to pearls is not known : Taverner ascribes it to their lying two or three weeks upon the shore after the oyster is taken : Reaumer thinks it proceeds from the colour of that part of the fish's body upon which the pearl lies. It is most probable that this colour proceeds, like the spots frequently found on the internal surface of the shell itself, from some accident while the pearl is growing.

The best coloured pearls, and the roundest are brought from the East : those of America are neither so white nor so exactly oval. All pearls, however, in time become yellow ; they may be considered as an animal substance converted into a stony hardness, and, like ivory, taking a tincture from the air. They have been even found to decay when in damp or vaulted places, and to moulder into a substance scarcely harder than chalk. When the daughters of Stilicon, who were both betrothed, one after the other, to the emperor Honorius, were buried, much of their finery was also deposited with them in the same tomb. In this manner they remained buried for above

eleven hundred years, till the foundations of the church of St. Peter were laying. Their tomb was then discovered, and all their finery was found in tolerable preservation except their pearls, which were converted by time and damp into a chalky powder.

The wretched people that are destined to fish for pearls, are either negroes or some of the poorest of the natives of Persia. The inhabitants of this country are divided into tyrants and slaves. The divers are not only subject to the dangers of the deep, to tempests, to suffocation at the bottom, to being devoured by sharks, but from their profession universally labour under a spitting of blood, occasioned by the pressure of air upon their lungs in going down to the bottom. The most robust and healthy young men are chosen for this employment, but they seldom survive it above five or six years. Their fibres become rigid; their eye-balls turn red; and they usually die consumptive.

It is amazing how very long they are seen to continue at the bottom. Some, as we are assured, have been known to continue three quarters of an hour under water without breathing; and to one unused to diving, ten minutes would suffocate the strongest. Whether from some effort the blood bursts the old passage which it had in the foetus, and circulates without going through the lungs, it is not easy to tell; but certain it is that some bodies have been dissected with this canal of communication open, and these extraordinary divers may be internally formed in that manner.

Be this as it may, no way of life seems so laborious, so dangerous, or so painful. They fish for pearls, or rather the oysters that contain them, in boats twenty-eight feet long; and of these there are sometimes three or four hundred at a time, with each seven or eight stones, which serve for anchors. There are from five to eight divers belonging to each, that dive one after another. They are quite naked, except that they have a net hanging down from the neck to put their oysters in, and gloves on their hands to defend them while they pick the oysters from the holes in the racks; for in this manner alone can they be gathered. Every diver is sunk by means of a stone, weighing fifty pounds, tied to the rope by which he descends. He places his foot in a kind of stirrup, and laying hold of the rope with his left hand, with his right he

stops his nose to keep in his breath, as upon going down he takes in a very long inspiration. They are no sooner come to the bottom, but they give the signal to those who are in the boat to draw up the stone ; which done, they go to work, filling their net as fast as they can ; and then giving another signal, the boats above pull up the net loaded with oysters, and shortly after the diver himself, to take a new inspiration. They dive to the depth of fifteen fathoms, and seldom go deeper. They generally go every morning by break of day to this fatiguing employment, taking the land wind to waft them out to sea, and returning with the sea-breeze at night. The owners of the boats usually hire the divers, and the rest of the boat's crew, as we do our labourers, at so much a day. All the oysters are brought on shore, where they are laid in a great heap, till the pearl fishery is over, which continues during the months of November and December. When opportunity serves, they then examine every oyster, and it is accidental whether the capture turns out advantageous. Indeed no human being can wish well to a commerce, which thus chains such a number of fellow-creatures to the bottom, to pluck up a glittering mouldering pebble.

CHAP. VII.

OF MULTIVALVE SHELL-FISH.

MULTIVALVE Shell-Fish may be considered as animals shut up in round boxes. To view their habitations externally, one would be little apt to consider them as the retreats of living creatures ; and still less, to suppose that some of them carry their boxes with a tolerable share of swiftness, so as to escape their pursuers. Of these there are principally two kinds ; such as move, and such as are stationary : the first are usually known in our cabinets by the name of Sea-eggs ; the others are as often admired, from the cavities which they scoop out for their habitation in the hardest marble. The first are called by Naturalists, Echini, or Urchins ; the latter are called Pholades, or File-fish. Of both there are several sorts ; but, by describing these two, we shall have a competent idea of all the rest.

On a slight view, the sea-urchin may be compared to the

husk of a chesnut; being like it round, and with a number of bony prickles standing out on every side. To exhibit this extraordinary animal in every light—if we could conceive a turnip stuck full of pins on every side, and running upon these pins with some degree of swiftness, we should have some idea of this extraordinary creature. The mouth is placed downwards; the vent is above; the shell is a hollow vase, resembling a scooped apple; and this filled with a soft muscular substance, through which the intestines wind from the bottom to the top. The mouth, which is placed undermost, is large and red, furnished with five sharp teeth, which are easily discerned. The jaws are strengthened by five small bones, in the centre of which is a small fleshy tongue; and from this the intestines make a winding of five spires, round the internal sides of the shell, ending at the top, where the excrements are excluded. But what makes the most extraordinary part of this animal's conformation, are its horns and its spines, that point from every part of the body, like the horns of a snail, and that serve at once as legs to move upon, as arms to feel with, and as instruments of capture and defence. Between these horns it has also spines that are not endued with such a share of motion. The spines and the horns issue from every part of its body; the spines being hard and prickly; the horns being soft, longer than the spines, and never seen except in the water. They are put forward and withdrawn like the horns of a snail, and are hid at the bases of the spines, serving, as was said before, for procuring food and motion. All this apparatus, however, is only seen when the animal is hunting its prey at the bottom of the water; for a few minutes after it is taken, all the horns are withdrawn into the body, and most of the spines drop off.

It is generally said of insects, that those which have the greatest number of legs, always move the slowest: but this animal seems to be an exception to the rule; for though furnished with two thousand spines, and twelve hundred horns, all serving for legs, and from their number seeming to impede each other's motion, yet it runs with some share of swiftness at the bottom, and it is sometimes no easy matter to overtake it. It is often taken upon the ebb, by following it in shallow water, either, in an osier basket, or

simply with the hand. Both the spines and the horns assist its motion; and the animal is usually seen running with the mouth downward.

Some kinds of this animal are as good eating as the lobster; and its eggs, which are of a deep red, are considered as a very great delicacy. But of others the taste is but indifferent; and in all places, except the Mediterranean, they are little sought for, except as objects of curiosity.

Very different in motion, though not much different in shape, from these, are the Acorn Shell-Fish, the Thumb-footed Shell-Fish, and the imaginary Barnacle. These are fixed to one spot, and appear to vegetate from a stalk. Indeed, to an inattentive spectator, each actually seems to be a kind of fungus that grows in the deep, destitute of animal life, as well as motion. But the inquirer will soon change his opinion, when he comes to observe this mushroom-like figure more minutely. He will then see that the animal residing within the shell has not only life, but some degree of voraciousness; that it has a cover, by which it opens and shuts its shell at pleasure; that it has twelve long crooked arms, furnished with hair, which it thrusts forth for its prey; and eight smaller, which are generally kept in the shell. They are seen adhering to every substance that is to be met with in the ocean; rocks, roots of trees, ships' bottoms, whales, lobsters, and even crabs, like bunches of grapes clung to each other. It is amusing enough to behold their operations.* They for some time remain motionless within their shell; but when the sea is calm, they are seen opening the lid, and peeping about them. They then thrust out their long neck, look round them for some time, and then abruptly retreat back into their box, shut their lid, and lurk in darkness and security. Some people eat them; but they are in no great repute at the tables of the luxurious, where their deformed figure would be no objection to their being introduced.

Of all animals of the shelly tribe, the Pholades are the most wonderful. From their great powers of penetration, compared with their apparent imbecility, they justly excite the astonishment of the curious observer. These animals are found in different places; sometimes clothed in their

* Anderson's History of Greenland.

proper shell, at the bottom of the water ; sometimes concealed in lumps of marly earth ; and sometimes lodged, shell and all, in the body of the hardest marble. In their proper shell they assume different figures ; but, in general, they somewhat resemble a mussel, except that their shell is found actually composed of five or more pieces, the smaller valves serving to close up the openings left by the irregular meeting of the two principal shells. But their penetration into rocks, and their residence there, makes up the most wonderful part of their history.

This animal, when divested of its shell, resembles a roundish soft pudding, with no instrument that seems in the least fitted for boring into stones, or even penetrating the softest substances. It is furnished with two teeth indeed ; but these are placed in such a situation as to be incapable of touching the hollow surface of its stony dwelling : it has also two covers to its shell, that open and shut at either end ; but these are totally unserviceable to it as a miner. The instrument with which it performs all its operations, and buries itself in the hardest rocks, is only a broad fleshy substance, somewhat resembling a tongue, that is seen issuing from the bottom of its shell. With this soft yielding instrument, it perforates the most solid marbles ; and having, while yet little and young, made its way, by a very narrow entrance, into the substance of the stone, it then begins to grow bigger, and thus to enlarge its apartment.

The seeming unfitness, however, of this animal for penetrating into rocks, and there forming an habitation, has induced many philosophers to suppose that they entered the rock while it was yet in a soft state, and from the petrifying quality of the water, that the whole rock afterwards hardened round them by degrees. Thus any penetrating quality, it was thought, was unjustly ascribed to them, as they only bored into a soft substance, that was hardened by time. This opinion, however, has been confuted, in a very satisfactory manner, by Doctor Bo-hads, who observed that many of the pillars of the temple of Serapis at Puteoli were penetrated by these animals. From thence he very justly concludes, that the pholades must have pierced into them since they were erected ; for no workmen would have laboured a pillar into form,

if it had been honey-combed by worms in the quarry. In short, there can be no doubt but that the pillars were perfectly sound when erected; and that the pholades have attacked them, during the time in which they continued buried under water, by means of the earthquake that swallowed up the city.*

From hence it appears that, in all nature, there is not a greater instance of perseverance and patience than what this animal is seen to exhibit. Furnished with the bluntest and softest auger, by slow successive applications, it effects what other animals are incapable of performing by force; penetrating the hardest bodies only with its tongue. When, while yet naked, and very small, it has effected an entrance, and has buried its body in the stone, it there continues for life at its ease; the sea-water that enters at the little aperture supplying it with luxurious plenty. When the animal has taken too great a quantity of water, it is seen to spurt it out of its hole with some violence. Upon this seemingly thin diet it quickly grows larger, and soon finds itself under a necessity of enlarging its habitation and its shell. The motion of the pholas is slow beyond conception; its progress keeps pace with the growth of its body; and, in proportion as it becomes larger, it makes its way farther into the rock. When it has got a certain way in, it then turns from its former direction, and hollows downward; till at last, when its habitation is completed, the whole apartment resembles the bowl of a tobacco pipe; the hole in the shank being that by which the animal entered.

Thus immured, the pholas lives in darkness, indolence, and plenty; it never removes from the narrow mansion into which it has penetrated; and seems perfectly content with being inclosed in its own sepulchre. The influx of the sea-water that enters by its little gallery satisfies all its wants; and, without any other food, it is found to grow from seven to eight inches long, and thick in proportion.

But they are not supplied only with their rocky habitation; they have also a shell to protect them: this shell grows upon them in the body of the rock, and seems a very unnecessary addition to their defence, which they have

* Bohadsch de Anamalibus Marinis, p. 153.

procured themselves by art. These shells take different forms, and are often composed of a different number of valves: sometimes six, sometimes but three; sometimes the shell resembles a tube with holes at either end, one for the mouth, and the other for voiding the excrements.

Yet the pholas, thus shut up, is not so solitary an animal as it would at first appear; for though it is immured in its hole without egress, though it is impossible for the animal, grown to a great size, to get out by the way it made in, yet many of this kind often meet in the heart of the rock, and, like miners in a siege, who sometimes cross each other's galleries, they frequently break in upon each other's retreats. Whether their thus meeting be the work of accident or of choice, few can take upon them to determine: certain it is, they are most commonly found in numbers in the same rock; and sometimes above twenty are discovered within a few inches of each other.

As to the rest, this animal is found in greatest numbers at Ancona, in Italy; it is found along the shores of Normandy and Poitou, in France; it is found also upon some of the coasts of Scotland: and, in general, is considered as a very great delicacy at the tables of the luxurious.*

* Most of these animals contain a phosphorescent fluid, of great splendour and brilliancy in the dark, and which illuminates whatever it touches, or happens to fall upon. They are generally on rocky shores, with a bed of sand, just below high-water mark, with their heads a little lifted above the surface, by which they may be easily drawn from their holes.

PART V.

OF FROGS, LIZARDS, AND SERPENTS

BOOK I.

OF FROGS AND TOADS.

CHAP. I.

OF FROGS AND TOADS IN GENERAL.

IF we emerge from the deep, the first and most obvious class of amphibious animals that occur upon land are frogs and toads. These, wherever they reside, seem equally adapted for living upon land, and in the water, having their hearts formed in such a manner as to dispense with the assistance of the lungs in carrying on the circulation. The frog and the toad, therefore, can live several days under water, without any danger of suffocation; they want but little air at the bottom; and what is wanting is supplied by lungs, like bladders, which are generally distended with wind, and answer all the purposes of a reservoir from whence to breathe.

To describe the form of animals so well known would be superfluous; to mark those differences that distinguish them from each other may be necessary. The frog moves by leaping; the toad crawls along the ground: the frog is, in general, less than the toad; its colour is brighter, and with a more polished surface; the toad is brown, rough, and dusty. The frog is light and active, and its belly comparatively small; the toad is slow, swollen, and incapable of escaping. The frog, when taken, contracts itself so as to

have a lump on its back; the toad's back is straight and even. Their internal parts are nearly the same, except that the lungs of the toad are more compact than those of the frog; they have fewer air-bladders, and, of consequence, the animal is less fitted for living under water. Such are the differences with respect to figure and confirmation; their habitudes and manners exhibit a greater variety, and require a separate description.

CHAP. II.

OF THE FROG, AND ITS VARIETIES

THE external figure of the frog is too well known to need a description. Its power of taking large leaps is remarkably great, compared to the bulk of its body. It is the best swimmer of all four-footed animals; and nature hath finely adapted its parts for those ends, the arms being light and active, the legs and thighs long, and furnished with very strong muscles.

If we examine this animal internally, we shall find that it has a very little brain for its size; a very wide swallow; a stomach seemingly small, but capable of great distension. The heart in the frog, as in all other animals that are truly amphibious, has but one ventricle; so that the blood can circulate without the assistance of the lungs, while it keeps under water. The lungs resemble a number of small bladders joined together, like the cells of a honey-comb: they are connected to the back by muscles, and can be distended or exhausted at the animal's pleasure. The male has two testiculi lying near the kidneys; and the female has two ovaries lying near the same place: but neither male nor female have any of the external instruments of generation; the anus serving for that purpose in both. Such are the most striking peculiarities in the anatomy of a frog; and in these it agrees with the toad, the lizard, and the serpent. They are all formed internally pretty much in the same manner, with spongy lungs, a simple heart, and are destitute of the external instruments that serve to continue the kind.

Of all those who have given histories of the frog, Mr. Ræsal, of Nuremberg, seems the most accurate and entertaining. His plates of this animal are well known; his assiduity and skilfulness in observing its manners are still more deserving our esteem. Instead, therefore, of following any other, I will take him for my guide; and though it be out of my power to amuse the reader with his beautiful designs, yet there will be some merit in transcribing his history.

The common brown frog begins to couple early in the season, and as soon as the ice is thawed from the stagnating waters. In some places the cold protracts their genial appetite till April; but it generally begins about the middle of March. The male is usually of a grayish brown colour; the female is more inclining to yellow, speckled with brown. When they couple, the colours of both are nearly alike on the back; but as they change their skins almost every eighth day, the old one falling off in the form of mucus, the male grows yellower, and the female more brown. In the males the arms and legs are much stronger than in the females; and at the time of coupling, they have upon their thumbs a kind of fleshy excrescence, which they fix firmly to the breast of the female. This Linnæus supposed to be the male instrument of generation; but, by closer inspection, it is found only of service in holding the female in a more strict embrace. It may be cut off, and the impregnation continue unimpaired: it is sometimes found in the opposite sex; and some of the males are found entirely without it; however, when it is cut off, the male cannot hold the female so strongly as before.

The sex couple only once a year: and then continue united sometimes for four days together. At this time they both have their bellies greatly swollen; that of the female being filled with eggs; the male having the skin of the whole body distended with a limpid water, which is ejected in impregnation. As soon as the male has leaped upon the female, he throws his fore legs round her breast, and closes them so firmly, that it is impossible, with the naked hands, to loose them. The male clasps his fingers between each other, in the same manner as people when they are praying; the thumbs press with their thickest

sides against the breast of the female; and though she should struggle ever so much, nothing can induce him to let go his hold. The grasp seems involuntary and convulsive; they cannot be easily torn asunder; and they swim, creep, and live united, for some days successively, till the female had shed her spawn, which, at length, she does almost in an instant. But how the impregnation is performed, without any apparent instruments of generation, has long been an object of inquiry; and still continues in great obscurity. To investigate the difficulty as carefully as possible, our German philosopher continued to examine their mutual congress for three years together, and availed himself of all the lights that the knife, or analogy, could furnish.

After having chosen twelve couple of frogs that were thus joined to each other, and having placed each couple in a glass vessel with water, he scarcely let them out of his sight day or night, and even sat up two nights together to examine their operations. The first day he observed nothing that deserved remark; but the second they began to be agitated more than before; the males made a noise somewhat resembling the grunting of a hog; the females only kept sinking and rising in the water.

The male of the first couple ejected the humidity with which his body was swollen, by which the water in the glass was made muddy; and he soon after quitted the female.—Our philosopher continued for twelve hours to observe whether the female would cast her spawn; but finding her tardy, he dissected both her and the male: in the latter, the spermatic vessels were quite empty, as might naturally have been supposed; but for the female, her spawn still remained in her body. Upon its being extracted, and put into water, it perished without producing any animal whatever. From hence he justly concluded, that it required that the eggs should be ejected from the body of the female before they could be at all prolific. In another pair the male quitted the female, who did not eject her spawn till sixteen days after; and these, like the former, came to nothing. But it was very different with some of the rest. The females ejected their spawn while the male still remained in his station, and impregnated the masses at different intervals as they fell from her; and

these all brought forth animals in the usual course of generation. From these observations it was easy to infer, that the female was impregnated neither by the mouth, as some philosophers imagined, nor by the excrescence at the thumbs, as was the opinion of Linnæus, but by the inspersion of the male seminal fluid upon the eggs, as they proceeded from the body.

A single female produces from six to eleven hundred eggs at a time; and, in general, she throws them all out together by a single effort; though sometimes she is an hour in performing this task. While she is thus bringing forth, it may be observed that the male acts the part of a midwife, and promotes the expulsion of the eggs by working with his thumbs, and compressing the female's body more closely. The eggs which were compressed in the womb, upon being emitted, expand themselves into a round form, and drop to the bottom of the water; while the male swims off, and strikes with his arms as usual, though they had continued so long in a state of violent contraction.

The egg, or little black globe, which produces a tadpole, is surrounded with two different kinds of liquor. That which immediately surrounds the globe is clear and transparent, and contained in its proper membrane; that which surrounds the whole is muddy and mucous. The transparent liquor serves for the nourishment of the tadpole from time to time; and answers the same purposes that the white of the egg does to birds. The tadpoles, when this membrane is broken, are found to adhere with their mouth to part of it; and when they get free, they immediately sink to the bottom of the water, never being able to get to the top after, while they continue in their tadpole form.

But to return—When the spawn is emitted and impregnated by the male, it drops as was said, to the bottom, and there the white quickly and sensibly increases. The eggs, which, during the four first hours, suffer no perceptible change, begin then to enlarge and grow lighter; by which means they mount to the surface of the water. At the end of eight hours the white in which they swim grows thicker, the eggs lose their blackness, and, as they increase in size, somewhat of their spherical form. The

slow growth with their other habitudes, it would appear that they live about twelve years; but having so many enemies, both by land and water, it is probable that few of them arrive at the end of their term.

Frogs live upon insects of all kinds; but they never eat any unless they have motion. They continue fixed and immoveable till their prey appears; and just when it comes sufficiently near, they jump forward with great agility, dart out their tongues, and seize it with certainty. The tongue, in this animal, as in the toad, lizard, and serpent kinds, is extremely long, and formed in such a manner, that it swallows the point down its throat; so that a length of tongue is thus drawn out, like a sword from its scabbard, to assail its prey. This tongue is furnished with a glutinous substance; and whatever insect it touches, infallibly adheres, and is thus held fast till it is drawn into the mouth.

As the frog is thus supplied with the power of catching its prey, it is also very vivacious, and able to bear hunger for a very long time. I have known one of them continue a month in summer without any other food than the turf on which it was placed in a glass vessel. We are told of a German surgeon, that kept one eight years in a glass vessel, covered with a net. Its food was at all times but sparing; in summer he gave it fresh grass, which it is said to have fed upon; and, in the winter, hay, a little moistened; he likewise, now and then, put flies into the glass, which it would follow with an open mouth, and was very expert in catching them. In winter, when the flies were difficult to be found, it usually fell away, and grew very lean; but in the summer, when they were plenty, it soon grew fat again. It was kept in a warm room, and was always lively and ready to take its prey: however, in the eighth winter, when there were no flies to be found, it fell away and died. It is not certain how long it might have lived, had it been supplied with proper nourishment; but we are certain, that a very little food is capable of sufficing its necessities.

Nor is the frog less tenacious of life. It will live and jump about several hours after its head has been cut off. It will continue active, though all its bowels are taken out; and it can live some days, though entirely stripped

of its skin. This cruel trick, which is chiefly practised among school-boys, of skinning frogs, an operation which is done in an instant, seems for some hours no way to abate their vigour. I am assured that some of them get a new skin, and recover, after this painful experiment.

The croaking of frogs is well known ; and, from thence, in some countries, they are distinguished by the ludicrous title of Dutch Nightingales. Indeed, the aquatic frogs of Holland are loud beyond what one would imagine. We could hardly conceive that an animal, not bigger than one's fist, should be able to send forth a note that is heard at three miles' distance ; yet such is actually the case.* The large water-frogs have a note as loud as the bellowing of a bull ; and, for this purpose, puff up the cheeks to a surprising magnitude. Of all frogs, however the male only croaks ; the female is silent, and the voice in the other seems to be the call to courtship. It is certain, that at these times when they couple, the loudness of their croaking is in some places very troublesome ; for then the whole lake seems vocal ; and a thousand dissonant notes perfectly stun the neighbourhood. At other times, also, before wet weather, their voices are in full exertion ; they are then heard with unceasing assiduity, sending forth their call, and welcoming the approaches of their favourite moisture. No weather-glass was ever so true as a frog in foretelling an approaching change ; and, in fact, the German surgeon, mentioned above, kept his frog for that purpose. It was always heard to croak at the approach of wet weather ; but was as mute as a fish when it threatened a continuance of fair. This may probably serve to explain an opinion which some entertain, that there is a month in the year, called *Paddock Moon*, in which the frogs never croak : the whole seems to be no more than that, in the hot season, when the moisture is dried away, and consequently, when these animals neither enjoy the quantity of health or food that at other times they are supplied with, they show, by their silence, how much they are displeased with the weather. All very dry weather is hurtful to their health, and prevents them from getting their prey. They subsist chiefly upon worms and snails ; and as drought prevents these from

* Ræsel, *ibid.*

appearing, the frog is thus stinted in its provisions, and also wants that grateful humidity which moistens its skin, and renders it alert and active.

As frogs adhere closely to the backs of their own species, so it has been found, by repeated experience, they will also adhere to the backs of fishes. Few that have ponds, but know that these animals will stick to the backs of carp, and fix their fingers in the corner of each eye. In this manner they are often caught together; the carp blinded and wasted away. Whether this proceeds from the desires of the frog, disappointed of its proper mate, or whether it be a natural enmity between frogs and fishes, I will not take upon me to say. A story told us by Walton, might be apt to incline us to the latter opinion.

“As Dubravius, a bishop of Bohemia, was walking with a friend by a large pond in that country, they saw a frog, when a pike lay very sleepily and quiet by the shore side, leap upon his head, and the frog having expressed malice or anger by his swoln cheeks and staring eyes, did stretch out his legs, and embraced the pike’s head, and presently reached them to his eyes, tearing with them and his teeth those tender parts; the pike, irritated with anguish, moves up and down the water, and rubs himself against weeds, and whatever he thought might quit him of his enemy; but all in vain, for the frog did continue to ride triumphantly, and to bite and torment the pike till his strength failed, and then the frog sunk with the pike to the bottom of the water: then presently the frog appeared again at the top, and croaked, and seemed to rejoice like a conqueror; after which he presently retired to his secret hole. The bishop, that had beheld the battle, called his fisherman to fetch his nets, and by all means to get the pike, that they might declare what had happened. The pike was drawn forth, and both his eyes eaten out; at which, when they began to wonder, the fisherman wished them to forbear, and assured them he was certain that pikes were often so served.”

[Another tribe of this family, is the Tree-frog: these animals have a much slenderer and more elegant shape than the common frog, and have the limbs longer. At the end of each toe is a round, flesh, concave substance, which exudes an unctuous matter, which enables it to adhere to the leaves and branches of trees, &c. in search of insects. They are found in France Germany, and Italy.]

CHAP. III.

OF THE TOAD, AND ITS VARIETIES.

IF we regard the figure of the toad, there seems nothing in it that should disgust more than that of the frog. Its form and proportions are nearly the same; and it chiefly differs in colour, which is blacker; and its slow and heavy motion, which exhibits nothing of the agility of the frog: yet such is the force of habit, begun in early prejudice, that those who consider the one as a harmless playful animal, turn from the other with horror and disgust. The frog is considered as an useful assistant, in ridding our grounds of vermin; the toad, as a secret enemy, that only wants an opportunity to infect us with its venom.

The imagination, in this manner biassed by its terrors, paints out the toad in the most hideous colouring, and clothes it in more than natural deformity. Its body is broad; its back flat; covered with a dusky pimpled hide; the belly is large and swagging; the pace laboured and crawling; its retreat gloomy and filthy; and its whole appearance calculated to excite disgust and horror: yet, upon my first seeing a toad, none of all these deformities in the least affected me with sensations of loathing: born, as I was, in a country where there are no toads, I had prepared my imagination for some dreadful object; but there seemed nothing to me more alarming in the sight, than in that of a common frog; and, indeed, for some time, I mistook and handled the one for the other. When first informed of my mistake, I very well remember my sensations: I wondered how I had escaped with safety, after handling and dissecting a toad, which I had mistaken for a frog. I then began to lay in a fund of horror against the whole tribe, which, though convinced they are harmless, I shall never get rid of. My first imaginations were too strong not only for my reason, but for the conviction of my senses.

As the toad bears a general resemblance of figure to the frog, so also it resembles that animal in its nature and appetites. Like the frog, the toad is amphibious; like that animal, it lives upon worms and insects, which it seizes by

darting out its length of tongue ; and in the same manner also it crawls about in moist weather. The male and female couple as in all the frog kind ; their time of propagation being very early in the spring. Sometimes the females are seen upon land oppressed by the males ; but more frequently they are coupled in the water. They continue together some hours, and adhere so fast as to tear the very skin from the parts they stick to. In all this they entirely resemble the frog ; but the assistance which the male lends the female, in bringing forth, is a peculiarity in this species that must not be passed over in silence. “ In the evening of a summer’s day, a French gentleman, being in the king’s gardens at Paris, perceived two toads coupled together, and he stopped to examine them. Two facts equally new surprised him ; the first was the extreme difficulty the female had in laying her eggs ; the second was the assistance lent her by the male for this purpose. The eggs of the female lie in her body, like beads on a string ; and after the first, by great effort, was excluded, the male caught it with his hinder paws, and kept working it till he had thus extracted the whole chain. In this manner the animal performed, in some measure, the functions of a midwife ; impregnating, at the same time, every egg as it issued from the body.”

It is probable, however, that this difficulty in bringing forth obtains only upon land ; and that the toad, which produces its spawn in the water, performs it with as much ease as a frog. They propagate in England exactly in the manner of frogs ; and the female, instead of retiring to dry holes, goes to the bottom of ponds, and there lies torpid all the winter, preparing to propagate in the beginning of spring. On these occasions, the number of males is found greatly to surpass that of the other sex, there being above thirty to one ; and twelve or fourteen are often seen clinging to the same female.

When, like the frog, they have undergone all the variations of their tadpole state, they forsake the water ; and are often seen, in a moist summer’s evening, crawling up, by myriads, from fenny places, into dryer situations. There, having found out a retreat, or having dug themselves one with their mouth and hands, they lead a patient solitary life, seldom venturing out, except when the moisture of a

summer's evening invites them abroad. At that time the grass is filled with snails, and the pathways covered with worms, which make their principal food. Insects also of every kind they are fond of; and we have the authority of Linnæus for it, that they sometimes continue immoveable, with the mouth open, at the bottom of shrubs, where the butterflies, in some measure fascinated, are seen to fly down their throats.*

In a letter from Mr. Arscott, there are some curious particulars relating to this animal, which throws great light upon its history. "Concerning the toad," says he, "that lived so many years with us, and was so great a favourite, the greatest curiosity was its becoming so remarkably tame; it had frequented some steps before our hall-door some years before my acquaintance commenced with it, and had been admired by my father for its size, (being the largest I ever met with,) who constantly paid it a visit every evening. I knew it myself above thirty years; and by constantly feeding it, brought it to be so tame, that it always came to the candle, and looked up, as if expecting to be taken up and brought upon the table, where I always fed it with insects of all sorts. It was fondest of flesh maggots, which I kept in bran; it would follow them, and when within a proper distance, would fix his eyes, and remain motionless for near a quarter of a minute, as if preparing for the stroke, which was an instantaneous throwing its tongue at a great distance upon the insect, which stuck to the tip by a glutinous matter. The motion is quicker than the eye can follow. I cannot say how long my father had been acquainted with the toad, before I knew it; but when I was first acquainted with it, he used to mention it as the old toad I have known so many years; I can answer for thirty-six years. This old toad made its appearance as soon as the warm weather came; and I always concluded it retired to some dry bank, to repose till spring. When we new layed the steps, I had two holes made in the third step, on each, with a hollow of more than a yard long for it; in which I imagine it slept, as it came from thence at its first appearance. It was seldom provoked. Neither that toad, nor the multitudes I have seen tormented with great cruelty, ever

showed the least desire of revenge, by spitting or emitting any juice from their pimples. Sometimes, upon taking it up, it would let out a great quantity of clear water, which, as I have often seen it do the same upon the steps when quite quiet, was certainly its urine, and no more than a natural evacuation. Spiders, millipeds, and flesh maggots, seem to be this animal's favourite food. I imagine if a bee was to be put before a toad, it would certainly eat it to its cost;* but as bees are seldom stirring at the same time that toads are, they rarely come in their way; as they do not appear after sun-rising, or before sun-set. In the heat of the day they will come to the mouth of their hole, I believe for air. I once, from my parlour window, observed a large toad I had in the bank of a bowling-green, about twelve at noon in a very hot day, very busy and active upon the grass. So uncommon an appearance made me go out to see what it was; when I found an innumerable swarm of winged ants had dropped round his hole; which temptation was as irresistible as a turtle would be to a luxurious alderman. In respect to its end, had it not been for a tame raven, I make no doubt but it would have been now living. This bird, one day seeing it at the mouth of its hole, pulled it out, and, although I rescued it, pulled out one eye, and hurt it so, that notwithstanding its living a twelvemonth, it never enjoyed itself, and had a difficulty of taking its food, missing the mark for want of its eye. Before that accident, it had all the appearance of perfect health."

To this account of the toad's inoffensive qualities, I will add another from Valisnieri, to shew that, even taken internally, the toad is no way dangerous. In the year 1692, some German soldiers, who had taken possession of the castle of Arceti, finding that the peasants of the country often amused themselves in catching frogs, and dressing them for the table; resolved to provide themselves with a like entertainment, and made preparations for frog fishing, in the same manner. It may easily be supposed that the Italians and their German guests were not very fond of each other; and indeed it is natural to think that the soldiers gave the poor people of the country many good reasons for discontent. They were not a little pleased,

* Ræsel tried a frog; it swallowed the bee alive: its stomach was stung, and the animal vomited it up again.

therefore, when they saw them go to a ditch where toads, instead of frogs, were found in abundance. The Germans, no way distinguishing in their sport, caught them in great numbers; while the peasants kept looking on, silently flattering themselves with the hopes of speedy revenge. After being brought home, the toads were dressed up after the Italian fashion: the peasants were quite happy at seeing their tyrants devour them with so good an appetite, and expected every moment to see them drop down dead. But what was their surprise to find that the Germans continued as well as ever, and only complained of a slight excoriation of the lips, which, probably, arose from some other cause than that of their repast."

I will add another story, from Solenander; who tells us, that a tradesman of Rome and his wife had long lived together with mutual discontent; the man was dropsical, and the woman amorous: this ill-matched society promised soon, by the very infirm state of the man, to have an end; but the woman was unwilling to wait the progress of the disorder; and therefore concluded that, to get rid of her husband, nothing was left her but poison. For this purpose she chose out a dose that she supposed would be the most effectual; and having calcined some toads, mixed their powder with his drink. The man, after taking a hearty dose, found no considerable inconvenience, except that it greatly promoted urine. His wife, who considered this as a beginning symptom of the venom, resolved not to stint the next dose, but gave it in greater quantities than before. This also increased the former symptom; and, in a few days, the woman had the mortification to see her detested husband restored to perfect health, and remained in utter despair of ever being a widow.

From all this it will appear with what injustice this animal has hitherto been treated. It has undergone every kind of reproach; and mankind have been taught to consider, as an enemy, a creature that destroys that insect-tribe which are their real invaders. We are to treat, therefore, as fables, those accounts that represent the toad as possessed of poison to kill at a distance; of its ejecting its venom, which burns wherever it touches; of its infecting those vegetables near which it resides; of its excessive fondness for sage, which it renders poisonous by its approach; these, and a hundred

others of the same kind; probably took rise from an antipathy which some have to all animals of the kind. It is an harmless, defenceless creature, torpid and unvenomous, and seeking the darkest retreats, not from the malignity of its nature, but the multitude of its enemies.

Like all the frog kind, the toad is torpid in winter. It chooses then, for a retreat, either the hollow root of a tree, the cleft of a rock, or sometimes the bottom of a pond, where it is found in a state of seeming insensibility. As it is very long-lived, it is very difficult to be killed; its skin is tough, and cannot be easily pierced; and, though covered with wounds, the animal continues to show signs of life, and every part appears in motion. But what shall we say to its living for centuries lodged in the bosom of a rock, or cased within the body of an oak-tree, without the smallest access on any side either for nourishment or air, and yet taken out alive and perfect! Stories of this kind it would be as rash to contradict as difficult to believe; we have the highest authorities bearing witness to their truth, and yet the whole analogy of nature seems to arraign them of falsehood. Bacon asserts that toads are found in this manner; Dr. Plot asserts the same. There is, to this day, a marble chimney-piece, at Chatsworth, with the print of a toad upon it, and a tradition of the manner in which it was found. In the *Memoirs of the Academy of Sciences* there is an account of a toad found alive and healthy in the heart of a very thick elm, without the smallest entrance or egress.* In the year 1731, there was another found, near Nantes, in the heart of an old oak, without the smallest issue to its cell; and the discoverer was of opinion, from the size of the tree, that the animal could not have been confined there less than eighty or a hundred years, without sustenance and without air. To all these we can only oppose the strangeness of the facts; the necessity this animal appears under of receiving air; and its dying, like all other animals, in the air-pump, when deprived of this all-sustaining fluid. But whether these be objections to weigh against such respectable and disinterested authority I will not pretend to determine; certain it is, that if kept in a damp place, the toad will live for several months without any food whatsoever.

To this extraordinary account, which is doubtful, I will

* Vide the year 1719.

add another not less so ; which is, that of toads sucking cancerous breasts, and thus extracting the venom, and performing a cure. The first account we have of this is in a letter to the Bishop of Carlisle from Dr. Pitfield, who was the first person of consequence that attended the experiment. His letter is as follows :—

“ Your lordship must have taken notice of a paragraph in the papers with regard to the application of toads to a cancered breast. A patient of mine has sent to the neighbourhood of Hungerford, and brought down the very woman on whom the cure was done. I have, with all the attention I am capable of, attended the operation for eighteen or twenty days, and am surprised at the phenomenon. I am in no expectation of any great service from the application ; the age, constitution, and thoroughly cancerous condition, of the person, being unconquerable barriers to it. How an ailment of that kind, absolutely local, in an otherwise sound habit, and of a likely age, might be relieved, I cannot say. But as to the operation, thus much I can assert, that there is neither pain nor nauseousness in it. The animal is put into a linen bag all but its head, and that is held to the part. It has generally instantly laid hold of the foulest part of the sore, and sucked with greediness until it dropped off dead. It has frequently happened that the creature has swollen immediately, and, from its agonies, appeared to be in great pain. I have weighed them for several days together, before and after the application, and found their increase of weight, in the different degrees, from a drachm to near an ounce. They frequently sweat exceedingly, and turn quite pale sometimes they disgorge, recover, and become lively again : I think the whole scene is surprising, and a very remarkable piece of natural history. From the constant inoffensiveness which I have observed in them, I almost question the truth of their poisonous spitting. Many people here expect no great good from the application of toads to cancers ; and where the disorder is not absolutely local, none is to be expected. When it is seated in any part not to be well come at for extirpation, I think it is hardly to be imagined, but that the having it sucked clean as often as you please, must give great relief. Every body knows that dogs licking of sores cures them ; which is, I suppose, chiefly by keeping them clean. If there be any credit to be given to history, poisons

have been sucked out. *Pallentia vulnera lambit ore venena trahens*, are the words of Lucan on the occasion. If the people to whom these words are applied did their cure by immediately following the injection of the poison, the local confinement of another poison brings the case to a great degree of similarity. I hope I have not tired your lordship with my long tale: as it is a true one, and, in my apprehension, a curious piece of natural history, I could not forbear communicating it to you. I own I thought the story in the papers to be an invention; and when I considered the instinctive principle in all animals of self-preservation, I was confirmed in my disbelief: but what I have related I saw; and all theory must yield to fact. It is only the Rubeth, the land-toad, which has the property of sucking: I cannot find any, the least, mention of the property in any one of the old naturalists. My patient can bear to have but one applied in twenty-four hours. The woman who was cured had them on day and night, without intermission, for five weeks. Their time of hanging at the breast has been from one to six hours."

Other remarks made upon their method of performing this extraordinary operation are as follow: "Some toads die very soon after they have sucked; others live about a quarter of an hour, and some much longer. For example, one that was applied about seven o'clock sucked till ten, and died as soon as it was taken from the breast; another that immediately succeeded continued till three o'clock, but dropped dead from the wound: each swelled exceedingly, and of a pale colour. They do not seem to suck greedily, and often turn their heads away; but during the time of their sucking, they were heard to smack their lips like a young child."*

From this circumstantial account of the progress of this extraordinary application, one could hardly suppose that any doubt could remain of the ingenious observer's accuracy; and yet, from information which I have received from authority still more respectable, there is much reason, as yet, to suspend our assent. A lady, who was under the care of the present president of the College of Physicians, was induced, by her friends, to try the experiment; and as he saw the case was desperate, and that it would quiet her mind as well

* British Zoology, vol. iii. p. 338.

as theirs, he permitted the trial. During the whole continuance of their application, she could never thoroughly perceive that they sucked her ; but that did not prevent their swelling and dying, as in the former instances. Once indeed, she said, she thought that one of them seemed to suck ; but the physician, and those who attended, could not perceive any appearance of it. Thus, after all, it is a doubt whether these animals die by the internal or the external application of the cancerous poison.

Of this animal there are several varieties ; such as the water and the land toad, which probably differ only in the ground-colour of their skin. In the first, it is more inclining to ash-colour, with brown spots ; in the other, the colour is brown, approaching to black. The water toad is not so large as the other ; but both equally breed in that element. The size of the toad, with us, is generally from two to four inches long ; but in the fenny countries of Europe I have seen them much larger, and not less than a common crab, when brought to table. But this is nothing to what they are found in some of the tropical climates, where travellers often, for the first time, mistake a toad for a tortoise. Their usual size is from six to seven inches ; but there are some still larger, and as broad as a plate. Of these some are beautifully streaked and coloured ; some studded over, as with pearls ; others bristled with horns or spines ; some have the head distinct from the body, while others have it so sunk in that the animal appears without a head.* All these are found in the tropical climates in great abundance ; and particularly after a shower of rain. It is then that the streets seem entirely paved with them ; they then crawl from their retreats, and go into all places to enjoy their favourite moisture. With us the opinion of its raining toads and frogs has long been justly exploded ; but it still is entertained in the tropical countries ; and that not

* Among this numerous family there is one which, for horrid and deformed appearance, probably, exceeds all other created beings. This is the horned toad, of South America. The colour is cinereous, with brown stripes. The eye-lids project in a singular manner, and give it the appearance as if the eyes were placed at the bottom of a pair of sharp-pointed horns : the head is very large, and the mouth is so enormous, as to exceed half the length of its body. To add to its loathsome appearance, it is likewise clothed all over, except the head and feet, with short sharp spines.

only by the savage natives, but the more refined settlers, who are apt enough to add the prejudices of other nations to their own.

It would be a tedious, as well as useless task, to enter into all the minute discriminations of these animals, as found in different countries or places; but the pipal, or Surinam toad, is too strange a creature not to require an exact description. There is not, perhaps, in all nature, a more extraordinary phenomenon than that of an animal breeding and hatching its young in its back; from whence, as from a kind of hot-bed, they crawl one after the other, when come to maturity.

The pipal is, in form, more hideous than even the common toad; nature seeming to have marked all those strange-mannered animals with peculiar deformity. The body is flat and broad; the head small; the jaws, like those of a mole, are extended, and evidently formed for rooting in the ground: the skin of the neck forms a sort of wrinkled collar: the colour of the head is of a dark chesnut, and the eyes are small: the back, which is very broad, is of a lightish gray, and seems covered over with a number of small eyes, which are round, and placed at nearly equal distances. These eyes are very different from what they seem; they are the animal's eggs, covered with their shells, and placed there for hatching. These eggs are buried deep in the skin, and in the beginning of incubation but just appear; and are very visible when the young animal is about to burst from its confinement. They are of a reddish shining yellow colour; and the spaces between them are full of small warts resembling pearls.

This is their situation, previous to their coming forth; but nothing so much demands our admiration as the manner of their production. The eggs, when formed in the ovary, are sent by some internal canals, which anatomists have not hitherto described, to lie, and come to maturity, under the bony substance of the back; in this state they are impregnated by the male, whose seed finds its way by pores very singularly contrived, and pierces not only the skin but the periosteum. The skin, however, is still apparently entire, and forms a very thick covering over the whole brood; but as they advance to maturity, at different intervals, one after another, the egg seems to start forward

and bourgeon from the back, becomes more yellow, and at last breaks, when the young one puts forth its head: it still, however, keeps its situation, until it has acquired a proper degree of strength, and then it leaves the shell, but still continues to keep upon the back of the parent. In this manner the pipal is seen travelling with her wonderful family on her back, in all the different stages of maturity. Some of the strange progeny, not yet come to sufficient perfection, appear quite torpid, and as yet without life in the egg: others seem just beginning to rise through the skin; here peeping forth from the shell; and there, having entirely forsaken their prison; some are sporting at large upon the parent's back; and others descending to the ground, to try their own fortune below.

Such is the description given of this strange production by Seba, in which he differs from Ruysch, who affirms, that the young ones are bred in the back of the male only, where the female lays her eggs. I have followed Seba, however, not because he is better authority, but because he is more positive of the truth of his account, and asserts, assuredly, that the eggs are found on the back of the female only. Many circumstances, however, are wanting towards completing his information; such as a description of the passage by which the egg finds its way into the back; the manner of its fecundation; the time of gestation; as also a history of the manners of this strange animal itself: but, by a prolixity that too much prevails among naturalists at present, he leaves the most interesting object of curiosity to give us a detailed description of the legs and claws of the pipal, about which we have very little concern.

The male pipal is every way larger than the female, and has the skin less tightly drawn round the body. The whole body is covered with pustules resembling pearls; and the belly, which is of a bright yellow, seems as if it were sewed up from the throat to the vent, a seam being seen to run in that direction. This animal, like the rest of the frog kind, is, most probably, harmless; though we are told of the terrible effects resulting from its powder when calcined. This, however, must certainly be false; no creature whatever, when calcined, can be poisonous; for the fire burns away whatever might have been dangerous in their composition: all animal substances, when calcined, being entirely the same.

BOOK II.

OF THE LIZARD KIND.

CHAP. I.

OF LIZARDS IN GENERAL.

THERE is scarcely a naturalist, who has treated of lizards, but has a particular manner of ranking them in the scale of animated nature. Ray, rather struck with the number of their legs than their habits and conformation, has exalted them among quadrupeds; while Linnæus, attentive only to their long slender forms, has degraded them among serpents, Brisson gives them a distinct class by themselves, under the name of *reptiles*. Klein gives them a class inferior to beasts, under the name of *naked quadrupeds*. Some, in short, from their scaly covering, and fondness for the water, have given them to the fishes; while there have not been wanting naturalists who have classed them with insects, as the smaller kinds of this class seem to demand.

It is indeed no easy matter to tell to what class in nature lizards are chiefly allied. They are unjustly raised to the rank of beasts, as they bring forth eggs, dispense with breathing, and are not covered with hair. They cannot be placed among fishes, as the majority of them live upon land: they are excluded from the serpent tribe by their feet, upon which they run with some celerity: and from the insects, by their size; for though the Newt may be looked upon in this contemptible light, a Crocodile would be a terrible insect indeed. Thus lizards are, in some measure, excluded from every rank, while they exhibit somewhat of the properties of all; the legs and celerity of the quadruped; a facility of creeping through narrow and intricate ways, like the serpent; and a power of living in the water, like fishes; however, though endued with these various powers, they have no real advantages over any other class of animated nature; for what they gain in aptitude for one element, they lose in their fitness for

another. Thus, between both, they are an awkward ungainly tribe; neither so alert upon land, nor so nimble in the water, as the respective inhabitants of either abode: and, indeed, this holds throughout all nature, that in proportion as the seeming advantages of inferior animals are multiplied their real ones are abridged; and all their instincts are weakened and lost by the variety of channels into which they are divided.

As lizards thus differ from every other class of animals, they also differ widely from each other. With respect to size, no class of beings has its ranks so opposite. What, for instance, can be more removed than the small Cameleon, an inch long, and the Alligator of the river Amazons, above twenty-seven feet? To an inattentive observer, they would appear entirely of different kinds; and Seba wonders how they ever came to be classed together.

The colour of these animals also is very various, as they are found of a hundred different hues—green, blue, red, chestnut, yellow, spotted, streaked, and marbled. Were colour alone capable of constituting beauty, the lizard would often please; but there is something so repressing in the animal's figure, that the brilliancy of its scales, or the variety of its spots, only tend to give an air of more exquisite venom or greater malignity. The figure of these animals is not less various: sometimes swollen in the belly; sometimes pursed up at the throat; sometimes with a rough set of spines on the back, like the teeth of a saw; sometimes with teeth, at others with none; sometimes venomous, at others harmless, and even philanthropic: sometimes smooth and even; sometimes with a long slender tail; and often with a shorter blunt one.*

But their greatest distinction arises from the manner of bringing forth their young. First, some of them are viviparous. Secondly, some are oviparous; and which may be considered in three distinct ways. Thirdly, some bring forth small spawn, like fishes. The crocodile, the Iguana, and all the larger kinds, bring forth eggs, which are hatched by the heat of the sun; the animals that issue from them are

* The whole of this tribe is perfectly destitute of poison, and, except the crocodile and alligator, quite inoffensive to mankind. Those that are bred in waters undergo a metamorphosis, and pass through a tadpole form.

complete upon leaving the shell; and their first efforts are to run to seek food in their proper element. The viviparous kinds, in which are all the salamanders, come forth alive from the body of the female, perfect and active, and suffer no succeeding change. But those which are bred in the water, and, as we have reason to think, from spawn, suffer a very considerable change in their form. They are produced with an external skin or covering that sometimes incloses their feet, and gives them a serpentine appearance. To this false skin fins are added, above and below the tail, that serve the animal for swimming; but when the false skin drops off, these drop off also; and then the lizard, with its four feet, is completely formed, and forsakes the water.

From hence it appears, that, of this tribe, there are three distinct kinds, differently produced, and, most probably, very different in their formation. But the history of these animals is very obscure; and we are, as yet, incapable of laying the line that separates them. All we know, as was said before, is, that the great animals of this kind are *mostly* produced perfect from the egg: the salamanders are *generally* viviparous; and *some* of the water-lizards imperfectly produced. In all these most unfinished productions of Nature, if I may so call them, the varieties in their structure increase in proportion to their imperfections. A poet would say, that Nature grew tired of the nauseous formation, and left accident to finish the rest of her handy-work.

However, the three kinds have many points of similitude; and, in all their varieties of figure, colour, and production, this tribe is easily distinguished, and strongly marked. They have all four short legs; the two fore-feet, somewhat resembling a man's hand and arm. They have tails almost as thick as the body at the beginning, and that generally run tapering to a point. They are all amphibious also; equally capable of living upon land and water; and formed, internally, in the same manner with the tortoise, and other animals, that can continue a long time without respiration: in other words, their lungs are not so necessary to continue life and circulation, but that their play may be stopped for some considerable time, while the blood performs its circuit round the body by a shorter communication.

These are differences that sufficiently separate lizards from all other animals; but it will be very difficult to fix the limits that distinguish the three kinds from each other. The *crocodile* tribe, and its affinities, are sufficiently distinguished from all the rest by their size and fierceness; the *salamander* tribe is distinguished by their deformity, their frog-like heads, the shortness of their snouts, their swollen bellies, and their viviparous production. With regard to the rest, which we may denominate the *cameleon* or lizard kind, some of which bring forth from the egg, and some of which are imperfectly formed from spawn, we must group them under one head, and leave time to unravel the rest of their history.

CHAP. II.

OF THE CROCODILE, AND ITS AFFINITIES.

THE Crocodile is an animal placed at a happy distance from the inhabitants of Europe, and formidable only in those regions where men are scarce, and arts are but little known. In all the cultivated and populous parts of the world, the great animals are entirely banished, or rarely seen. The appearance of such raises at once a whole country up in arms to oppose their force; and their lives generally pay the forfeit of their temerity. The crocodile, therefore, that was once so terrible along the banks of the river Nile, is now neither so large, nor its numbers so great, as formerly. The arts of mankind have, through a course of ages, powerfully operated to its destruction; and, though it is sometimes seen, it appears comparatively timorous and feeble.

To look for this animal in all its natural terrors, grown to an enormous size, propagated in surprising numbers, and committing unceasing devastations, we must go to the uninhabited regions of Africa and America, to those immense rivers that roll through extensive and desolate kingdoms, where arts have never penetrated, where force only makes distinction, and the most powerful animals exert their strength with confidence and security. Those that sail up the river Amazons, or the river Niger, well know how numerous and terrible those animals are in such parts of the world. In both these rivers, they are found from

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eighteen to twenty-seven feet long; and sometimes lying as close to each other as rafts of timber upon one of our streams. There they indolently bask on the surface, no way disturbed at the approach of an enemy, since, from the repeated trials of their strength, they found none that they were not able to subdue.

Of this terrible animal there are two kinds; the Crocodile, properly so called, and the Cayman or Alligator. Travellers, however, have rather made the distinctions than Nature; for, in the general outline, and in the nature of these two animals, they are entirely the same. It would be speaking more properly to call these animals the Crocodiles of the eastern and the western world; for, in books of voyages, they are so entirely confounded together, that there is no knowing whether the Asiatic animal be the crocodile of Asia, or the alligator of the western world. The distinctions usually made between the crocodile and alligator are these: the body of the crocodile is more slender than that of the alligator; its snout runs off tapering from the forehead, like that of a greyhound; while that of the other is indented, like the nose of a lap-dog. The crocodile has a much wider swallow, and is of an ash-colour; the alligator is black, varied with white, and is thought not to be so mischievous. All these distinctions, however, are very slight; and can be reckoned little more than minute variations.*

This animal grows to a great length, being sometimes found thirty feet long, from the tip of the snout to the end of the tail: its most usual length, however, is eighteen. One which was dissected by the Jesuits at Siam, was of the latter dimensions; and the description which is given of it, both externally and internally, is the most accurate known of this noted animal, I must beg leave to give it as I find it, though somewhat tedious. It was eighteen feet and a half, French measure, in length; of which the tail was no less than five feet and a half, and the head and neck above two feet and a half. It was four feet nine inches in circumference, where thickest. The fore legs had the same parts and conformation as the arms of a man, both

* The Crocodile has a scaly mail round its neck; but the neck of the Alligator is naked: the tale of the Crocodile is likewise furnished with two lateral crested processes.

within and without. The hands, if they may be so called, had five fingers; the two last of which had no nails, and were of a conical figure. The hinder legs, including the thigh and paw, were two feet two inches long; the paws, from the joint to the extremity of the longest claws, were above nine inches: they were divided into four toes, of which three were armed with large claws, the longest of which was an inch and a half; these toes were united by a membrane, like those of a duck, but much thicker. The head was long, and had a little rising at the top; but the rest was flat, and especially towards the extremity of the jaws. It was covered by a skin, which adhered firmly to the skull and to the jaws. The skull was rough and unequal in several places; and about the middle of the forehead there were two bony crests, about two inches high: the skull between these two crests was proof against a musket-ball; for it only rendered the part a little white that it struck against. The eye was very small, in proportion to the rest of the body, and was so placed within its orbit, that the outward part, when the lid was closed, was only an inch long, and the line running parallel to the opening of the jaws. It was covered with a double lid, one within and one without: that within, like the nictitating membrane in birds, was folded in the great corner of the eye, and had a motion towards the tail, but being transparent, it covered the eye without hindering the sight. The iris was very large in proportion to the globe of the eye, and was of a yellowish gray colour. Above the eye the ear was placed, which opened from above downwards, as if it were by a kind of spring, by means of a solid, thick, cartilaginous substance. The nose were placed in the middle of the upper jaw, near an inch from its extremity, and was perfectly round and flat, being near two inches in diameter, of a black, soft, spongy substance, not unlike the nose of a dog. The jaws seemed to shut one within another; and nothing can be more false than that the animal's under jaw is without motion; it moves like the lower jaw in all other animals, while the upper is fixed to the skull, and absolutely immoveable. The animal had twenty-seven cutting teeth in the upper jaw, and fifteen in the lower, with several void spaces between them: they were thick at the bottom, and sharp at the point, being all of

different sizes, except ten large hooked ones, six of which were in the lower jaw, and four in the upper. The mouth was fifteen inches in length, and eight and a half in breadth, were broadest. The distance of the two jaws, when opened as wide as they could be, was fifteen inches and a half; this is a very wide yawn, and could easily enough take in the body of a man. The colour of the body was of a dark brown on the upper part, and of a whitish citron below, with large spots of both colours on the sides. From the shoulders to the extremity of the tail, the animal was covered with large scales, of a square form, disposed like parallel girdles, and fifty-two in number; but those near the tail were not so thick as the rest. The creature was covered not only with these, but all over with a coat of armour; which, however, was not proof against a musket-ball, contrary to what has been commonly asserted: however, it must be confessed, that the attitude in which the animal was placed, might contribute to render the skin more penetrable; for, probably, if the ball had struck obliquely against the shell it would have flown off. Those parts of the girdles underneath the belly were of a whitish colour, and were made up of scales of divers shapes, but not so hard as those on the back.

With respect to the internal parts of the animal, the gullet was large in proportion to the mouth; and a ball of wood, as large as one's head, readily ran down, and was drawn up again. The guts were but short, in comparison, being not so long as the animal's body. The tongue, which some have erroneously asserted this animal was without, consisted of a thick spongy soft flesh, and was strongly connected to the lower jaw. The heart was of the size of a calf's, of a bright red colour, the blood passing as well from the veins to the aorta as into the lungs. There was no bladder; but the kidneys sent the urine to be discharged by the anus. There were sixty-two joints in the back-bone, which, though very closely united, had sufficient play to enable the animal to bend like a bow to the right and the left; so that what we hear of escaping the creature by turning out of the right line, and of the animal not being able to wheel readily after its prey, seems to be fabulous. It is most likely the crocodile can turn with ease, for the joints of its back are not stiffer than

those of other animals, which we know, by experience, can wheel about very nimbly for their size.

Such is the figure and conformation of this formidable animal, that unpeoples countries, and makes the most navigable rivers desert and dangerous. They are seen, in some places, lying for whole hours, and even days, stretched in the sun, and motionless; so that one not used to them might mistake them for trunks of trees, covered with a rough and dry bark; but the mistake would soon be fatal, if not prevented; for the torpid animal, at the near approach of any living thing, darts upon it with instant swiftness, and at once drags it down to the bottom. In the times of inundation, they sometimes enter the cottages of the natives, where the dreadful visitant seizes the first animal it meets with. There have been several examples of their taking a man out of a canoe in the sight of his companions, without their being able to lend him any assistance.

The strength of every part of the crocodile is very great; and its arms, both offensive and defensive, irresistible. We have seen, from the shortness of its legs, the amazing strength of the tortoise: but what is the strength of such an animal compared to that of the crocodile, whose legs are very short, and whose size is so superior! The back-bone is jointed in the firmest manner; the muscles of the fore and hinder legs are vigorous and strong; and its whole form calculated for force. Its teeth are sharp, numerous, and formidable; its claws are long and tenacious; but its principal instrument of destruction is the tail: with a single blow of this it has often overturned a canoe, and seized upon the poor savage its conductor.

Though not so powerful, yet it is very terrible even upon land. The crocodile seldom, except when pressed by hunger, or with a view of depositing its eggs, leaves the water. Its usual method is to float along upon the surface, and seize whatever animals come within its reach; but when this method fails, it then goes closer to the bank. Disappointed of its fishy prey, it there waits, covered up among the sedges, in patient expectation of some land animal that comes to drink; the dog, the bull, the tiger, or man himself. Nothing is to be seen of the insidious destroyer as the animal approaches; nor is its retreat discovered, till it be too late for

safety. It seizes the victim with a spring, and goes at a bound much farther than so unweildy an animal could be thought capable of exerting; then having secured the creature with both teeth and claws, it drags it into the water, instantly sinks with it to the bottom, and, in this manner, quickly drowns it.

Sometimes it happens that the creature the crocodile has thus surprised escapes from its grasp wounded, and makes off from the river side. In such a case the tyrant pursues with all its force, and often seizes it a second time; for, though seemingly heavy, the crocodile runs with great celerity. In this manner it is sometimes seen above half a mile from the bank, in pursuit of an animal wounded beyond the power of escaping, and then dragging it back to the river-side, where it feasts in security.

It often happens, in its depredations along the bank, that the crocodile seizes on a creature as formidable as itself, and meets with a most desperate resistance. We are told of frequent combats between the crocodile and the tiger. All creatures of the tiger kind are continually oppressed by a parching thirst, that keeps them in the vicinity of great rivers, whither they descend to drink very frequently. It is upon these occasions that they are seized by the crocodile; and they die not unrevenged. The instant they are seized upon, they turn with the greatest agility, and force their claws into the crocodile's eyes, while he plunges with his fierce antagonist into the river. There they continue to struggle for some time, till at last the tiger is drowned.

In this manner the crocodile seizes and destroys all animals, and is equally dreaded by all. There is no animal but man alone that can combat it with success. We are assured by Labat, that a negro, with no other weapons than a knife in his right hand, and his left arm wrapped round with a cow-hide, ventures boldly to attack this animal in his own element. As soon as he approaches the crocodile, he presents his left arm, which the animal swallows most greedily; but sticking in his throat, the negro has time to give it several stabs under the throat; and the water also getting in at the mouth, which is held involuntarily open, the creature is soon bloated up as big as a tun, and expires.

To us who live at a distance from the rapacity of these

animals, these stories appear strange, and yet most probably are true. From not having seen any thing so formidable or bold in the circle of our own experience, we are not to determine upon the wonderful transactions in distant climates. It is probable that these, and a number of more dreadful encounters, happen every day among those forests and in those rivers where the most formidable animals are known to reside; where the elephant and rhinoceros, the tiger and the hippopotamus, the shark and the crocodile, have frequent opportunities of meeting, and every day of renewing their engagements.

Whatever be the truth of these accounts, certain it is that crocodiles are taken by the Siamese in great abundance. The natives of that empire seem particularly fond of the capture of all the great animals with which their country abounds. We have already seen their success in taking and taming the elephant; nor are they less powerful in exerting their dominion over the crocodile. The manner of taking it in Siam, is by throwing three or four strong nets across a river, at proper distances from each other; so that if the animal breaks through the first, it may be caught by one of the rest. When it is first taken, it employs the tail, which is the grand instrument of strength, with great force; but after many unsuccessful struggles, the animal's strength is at last exhausted. Then the natives approach their prisoner in boats, and pierce him with their weapons in the most tender parts, till he is weakened by the loss of blood. When he has done stirring, they begin by tying up his mouth, and with the same cord they fasten his head to his tail, which last they bend back like a bow. However, they are not yet perfectly secure from his fury; but, for their greater safety, they tie his fore-feet, as well as those behind, to the top of his back. These precautions are not useless: for if they were to omit them, the crocodile would soon recover strength enough to do a great deal of mischief.

The crocodile, thus brought into subjection, or bred up young, is used to divert and entertain the great men of the East. It is often managed like a horse; a curb is put into its mouth, and the rider directs it as he thinks proper. Though awkwardly formed, it does not fail to proceed with some degree of swiftness; and it is thought to move

as fast as some of the most unwieldy of our own animals, the hog or the cow. Some, indeed, assert, that no animal could escape it, but for its difficulty in turning; but to this resource we could wish none would trust who are so unhappy as to find themselves in danger.

Along the rivers of Africa this animal is sometimes taken in the same manner as the shark. Several Europeans go together in a large boat, and throw out a piece of beef upon a hook and strong fortified line, which the crocodile seizing and swallowing, is drawn along, floundering and struggling until its strength is quite exhausted, when it is pierced in the belly, which is its tenderest part; and thus, after numberless wounds, is drawn ashore. In this part of the world also, as well as at Siam, the crocodile makes an object of savage pomp near the palaces of their monarchs. Philips inform us, that at Sabi, on the slave coast, there are two pools of water, near the royal palace, where crocodiles are bred, as we breed carp in our ponds in Europe.

Hitherto I have been describing the crocodile as it is found in unpeopled countries, and undisturbed by frequent encounters with mankind. In this state it is fierce and cruel, attacking every object that seems endued with motion: but in Egypt, and other countries long peopled, where the inhabitants are civilized, and the rivers frequented, this animal is solitary and fearful. So far from coming to attack a man, it sinks at his approach with the utmost precipitation; and as if sensible of superior power, ever declines the engagement. We have seen more than one instance in animated nature of the contempt which at first the lower orders of the creation have for man, till they have experienced his powers of destruction. The lion and the tiger among beasts, the whale among fishes, the albatross and the penguin among birds, meet the first encounters of man without dread or apprehension; but they soon learn to acknowledge his superiority, and take refuge from his power in the deepest fastnesses of nature. This may account for the different characters which have been given us of the crocodile and the alligator, by travellers at different times; some describing them as harmless and fearful, as ever avoiding the sight of a man, and preying only upon fishes:

others ranking them among the destroyers of nature; describing them as furnished with strength, and impelled by malignity, to do mischief; representing them as the greatest enemies of mankind, and particularly desirous of human prey. The truth is, the animal has been justly described by both; being such as it is found in places differently peopled or differently civilized. Wherever the crocodile has reigned long unmolested, it is there fierce, bold, and dangerous; wherever it has been harassed by mankind, its retreats invaded, and its numbers destroyed, it is there timorous and inoffensive.

In some places, therefore, this animal, instead of being formidable, is not only inoffensive, but is cherished and admired. In the river San Domingo, the crocodiles are the most inoffensive animals in nature; the children play with them, and ride about on their backs; they even beat them sometimes, without receiving the smallest injury. It is true the inhabitants are very careful of this gentle breed, and consider them as harmless domestics.

It is probable that the smell of musk, which all these animals exhale, may render them agreeable to the savages of that part of Africa. They are often known to take the part of this animal which contains the musk, and wear it as a perfume about their persons. Travellers are not agreed in what part of the body these musk-bags are contained; some say in the ears; some, in the parts of generation; but the most probable opinion is, that this musky substance is amassed in glands under the legs and arms. From whatsoever part of the body this odour proceeds, it is very strong and powerful, tincturing the flesh of the whole body with its taste and smell. The crocodile's flesh is at best very bad tough eating; but unless the musk bags be separated it is insupportable. The Negroes themselves cannot well digest the flesh; but then, a crocodile's egg is to them the most delicate morsel in the world. Even savages exhibit their epicures as well as we; and one of true taste will spare neither pains nor danger to furnish himself with his favourite repast. For this reason, he often watches the places where the female comes to lay her eggs, and upon her retiring seizes the booty.

All crocodiles breed near fresh waters; and though they are sometimes found in the sea, yet that may be considered

rather as a place of excursion than abode. They produce their young by eggs, as was said above; and for this purpose the female, when she comes to lay, chooses a place by the side of a river, or some fresh-water lake, to deposit her brood in. She always pitches upon an extensive sandy shore, where she may dig a hole without danger of detection from the ground being fresh turned up. The shore must also be gentle and shelving to the water, for the greater convenience of the animal's going and returning; and a convenient place must be found near the edge of the stream, that the young may have a shorter way to go. When all these requisites are adjusted, the animal is seen cautiously stealing upon shore to deposit her burden. The presence of a man, a beast, or even a bird, is sufficient to deter her at that time; and if she perceives any creature looking on, she infallibly returns. If, however, nothing appears, she then goes to work, scratching up the sand with her fore-paws, and making a hole pretty deep in the shore. There she deposits from eighty to a hundred eggs, of the size of a tennis-ball, and of the same figure, covered with a tough white skin like parchment. She takes above an hour to perform this task; and then covering up the place so artfully that it can scarcely be perceived, she goes back to return again the next day. Upon her return, with the same precaution as before, she lays about the same number of eggs; and the day following also a like number. Thus having deposited her whole quantity, and having covered them close up in the sand, they are soon vivified by the heat of the sun; and at the end of thirty days, the young ones begin to break open the shell. At this time the female is instinctively taught that her young ones want relief; and she goes upon land to scratch away the sand, and set them free. Her brood quickly avail themselves of their liberty; a part run unguided to the water; another part ascend the back of the female, and are carried thither in greater safety. But the moment they arrive at the water, all natural connexion is at an end; when the female has introduced her young to their natural element, not only she, but the male, become among the number of their most formidable enemies, and devour as many of them as they can. The whole brood scatters into different parts of the bottom;

by far the greatest number are destroyed, and the rest find safety in their agility or minuteness.

But it is not the crocodile alone that is thus found to thin their numbers; the eggs of this animal are not only a delicious feast to the savage, but are eagerly sought after by every beast and bird of prey. The ichneumon was erected into a deity among the ancients for its success in destroying the eggs of these monsters: at present that species of the vulture called the Gallinazo is their most prevailing enemy. All along the banks of great rivers, for thousands of miles, the crocodile is seen to propagate in numbers that would soon overrun the earth, but for the vulture, that seems appointed by Providence to abridge its fecundity. These birds are ever found in greatest numbers where the crocodile is most numerous: and, hiding themselves within the thick branches of the trees that shade the banks of the river, they watch the female in silence, and permit her to lay all her eggs without interruption. Then when she has retired, they encourage each other with cries to the spoil; and flocking all together upon the hidden treasure, tear up the eggs, and devour them in a much quicker time than they were deposited. Nor are they less diligent in attending the female while she is carrying her young to the water; for if any one of them happens to drop by the way, it is sure to receive no mercy.

Such is the extraordinary account given us by late travellers of the propagation of this animal; an account adopted by Linnæus and the most learned naturalists of the age.* Yet, if one might argue from the general analogy of nature, the crocodile's devouring her own young when she gets to the water seems doubtful. This may be a story raised from the general idea of this animal's rapacious cruelty; when, in fact, the crocodile only seems more cruel than other animals, because it has more power to do mischief. It is probable that it is not more divested of parental tenderness than other creatures, and I am the more led to think so from the peculiar formation of one of the crocodile kind. This is called the Open-Bellied Crocodile, and is furnished with a false belly like the opossum, where the young creep out and in, as their dangers or necessities require. The crocodile thus furnished at least cannot be said to be an enemy to her

* Ullou.

own young, since she thus gives them more than parental protection. It is probable, also, that this open-bellied crocodile is viviparous, and fosters her young that are prematurely excluded in this second womb, until they come to proper maturity.*

How long the crocodile lives we are not certainly informed: if we may believe Aristotle, it lives the age of a man; but the ancients so much amused themselves in inventing fables concerning this animal, that even truth from them is suspicious. What we know for certain from the ancients is, that among the various animals that were produced to fight in the amphitheatre at Rome, the combat of the crocodile was not wanting.† Marcus Scaurus produced them living in his unrivalled exhibitions; and the Romans considered him as the best citizen, because he furnished them with the most expensive entertainments. But entertainment at that corrupt time was their only occupation.

CHAP. III.

OF THE SALAMANDER.

THE ancients have described a lizard that is bred from heat, that lives in the flames, and feeds upon fire as its proper nourishment. As they saw every other element, the air, the earth, and water, inhabited, fancy was set to work to find or make an inhabitant in fire; and thus to people every part of nature. It will be needless to say that there is no such animal existing; and that of all others, the modern salamander has the smallest affinity to such an abode.

Whether the animal that now goes by the name of the Salamander be the same with that described by Pliny, is a doubt with me; but this is not a place for the discussion. It is sufficient to observe, that the modern salamander is an animal of the lizard kind, and under this name is comprehended a large tribe that all go by the same name. There

*. What the author means here by the open-bellied crocodile, we are at a loss to make out: but it is certain that not one of the lizard tribe have any thing like an abdominal pouch for the safety of their young.

† Plin. lib. viii. c. 26.

have been not less that seven sorts of this animal described by Seba; and to have some idea of the peculiarity of their figure, if we suppose the tail of a lizard applied to the body of a frog, we shall not be far from precision. The common lizard is long, small, and taper; the salamander, like the frog, has its eyes towards the back of the head; like the frog, its snout is round, and not pointed, and its belly thick and swollen. The claws of its toes are short and feeble; its skin rough; and the tongue, unlike that of the smallest of the lizard kind, in which it is long and forked, is short, and adhering to the under jaw.

But it is not in figure that this animal chiefly differs from the rest of the lizard tribe; for it seems to differ in nature and conformation. In nature it is unlike, being a heavy torpid animal; whereas the lizard tribe are active, restless, and ever in motion: in conformation it is unlike, as the salamander is produced alive from the body of its parent, and is completely formed the moment of its exclusion. It differs from them also in its general reputation of being venomous: however, no trials that have been hitherto made seem to confirm the truth of the report.

Not only this, but many others of the lizard tribe, are said to have venom; but it were to be wished that mankind, for their own happiness, would examine into the foundation of this reproach. By that means many of them, that are now shunned and detested, might be found inoffensive; their figure, instead of exciting either horror or disgust, would then only tend to animate the general scene of nature; and speculation might examine their manners in confidence and security. Certain it is, that all of the lizard kind, with which we are acquainted in this country, are perfectly harmless; and it is equally true that, for a long time, till our prejudices were removed, we considered not only the Newt, but the Snake and the Blind-worm, as fraught with the most destructive poison. At present we have got over these prejudices; and, it is probable, that if other nations made the same efforts for information, it would be found, that the malignity of most, if not all, of the lizard tribe, was only in the imagination.

With respect to the Salamander, the whole tribe, from the Moron to the Gekko, are said to be venomous to the last degree; yet, when experiments have been tried, no arts,

no provocations, could excite these animals to the rage of biting. They seem timid and inoffensive, only living upon worms and insects ; quite destitute of fangs, like the viper, their teeth are so very small that they are hardly able to inflict a wound. But as the teeth are thus incapable of offending, the people of the countries where they are found have recourse to a venomous slaver, which, they suppose, issues from the animal's mouth ; they also tell us of a venom issuing from the claws : even Linnæus seems to acknowledge the fact ; but thinks it a probable supposition that this venom may proceed from their urine.

Of all animals, the Gekko is the most notorious for its powers of mischief ; yet we are told by those who load it with that calumny, that it is very friendly to man, and though supplied with the most deadly virulence, is yet never known to bite. It would be absurd in us, without experience, to pronounce upon the noxious or inoffensive qualities of animals : yet it is most probable, from an inspection of the teeth of lizards, and from their inoffensive qualities in Europe, that the gekko has been unjustly accused ; and that its serpent-like figure has involved it in one common reproach with serpents.

The salamander best known in Europe, is from eight to eleven inches long, usually black, spotted with yellow ; and, when taken in the hand, feeling cold to a great degree.—There are several kinds. Our Black Water-Newt is reckoned among the number. The idle report of its being inconsumable in fire, has caused many of these poor animals to be burnt ; but we cannot say as philosophical martyrs, since scarcely any philosopher could think it necessary to make the experiment. When thrown into the fire, the animal is seen to burst with the heat of its situation, and to eject its fluids. We are gravely told, in the Philosophical Transactions, that this is a method the animal takes to extinguish the flames !

When examined internally, the salamander exhibits little difference from other animals of the lizard kind. It is furnished with lungs that sometimes serve for the offices of breathing ; with a heart that has its communications open, so that the animal cannot easily be drowned. The ovary in the female is double the size of what it is in others of this tribe ; and the male is furnished with four testiculi instead

of two. But what deserves particular notice is the manner of this animal's bringing forth its young alive.* "The salamander," says my author, "begins to shew itself in spring, and chiefly during heavy rains. When the warm weather returns, it disappears; and never leaves its hole, during either great heats or severe colds, both which it equally fears. When taken in the hand, it appears like a lump of ice; it consequently loves the shade, and is found at the feet of old trees surrounded with brushwood at the bottom. It is fond of running along new ploughed grounds; probably to seek for worms, which are its ordinary food. One of these," continues my author, "I took alive some years ago in a ditch that had been lately made. I laid it at the foot of the stairs upon coming home, and there it disgorged from the throat a *worm* three inches long, that lived for an hour after, though wounded as I suppose by the teeth of the animal. I afterwards cut up another of these lizards, and saw not less than fifty young ones, resembling the parent, come from its womb, all alive, and actively running about the room." It were to be wished the author had used another word beside that of *worm*; as we now are in doubt whether he means a real worm, or a young animal of the lizard species: had he been more explicit, and had it appeared that it was a real young lizard, which I take to be his meaning, we might here see a wonder of Nature brought to the proof, which many have asserted, and many have thought proper to deny: I mean the refuge which the young of the shark, the lizard, and the viper kinds, are said to take, by running down the throat of the parent, and there finding a temporary security. The fact, indeed, seems a little extraordinary; and yet it is so frequently attested by some, and even believed by others, whose authority is respectable, among the number of whom we find Mr. Pennant, that the argument of strangeness must give way to the weight of authority.

However this be, there is no doubt of the animal's being viviparous, and producing above fifty at a time. They come from the parent in full perfection, and quickly leave her to shift for themselves. These animals, in the lower ranks of nature, want scarcely any help when excluded; they soon

* Acta Hafniénsia, ann. 1676. Observ. 11. Mémoires de l'Académie Royale des Sciences, tom. iii. part 3. p. 80.

complete the little circle of their education ; and in a day or two are capable of practising all the arts of subsistence and evasion practised by their kind.

They are all amphibious, or at least are found capable of subsisting in either element, when placed there : if those taken from land are put into water, they continue there in seeming health ; and, on the contrary, those taken from the water will live upon land. In water, however, they exhibit a greater variety in their appearance ; and what is equally wonderful with the rest of their history, during the whole spring and summer, this water-lizard changes its skin every fourth or fifth day ; and during the winter every fifteen days. This operation they perform by means of the mouth and the claws ; and it seems a work of no small difficulty and pain. The cast skins are frequently seen floating on the surface of the water : they are sometimes seen also with a part of their old skin still sticking to one of their limbs, which they have not been able to get rid of ; and thus, like a man with a boot half drawn, in some measure crippled in their own spoils. This also often corrupts, and the leg drops off ; but the animal does not seem to feel the want of it, for the loss of a limb to all the lizard kind is but a trifling calamity. They can live several hours even after the loss of their head : and for some time under dissection, all the parts of this animal seem to retain life : but the tail is the part that longest retains its motion. Salt seems to be much more efficacious in destroying these animals than the knife ; for upon being sprinkled with it, the whole body emits a viscous liquor, and the lizard dies in three minutes, in great agonies.

The whole of the lizard kind are also tenacious of life in another respect, and the salamander among the number. They sustain the want of food in a surprising manner. One of them, brought from the Indies, lived nine months, without any other food than what it received from licking a piece of earth on which it was brought over : * another was kept by Seba in an empty vial for six months, without any nourishment ; and Rhedi talks of a large one, brought from Africa, that lived for eight months, without taking any nourishment whatever. Indeed, as many of this kind, both salamanders

* Phil. Trans. ann. 1661. N. 21. art. 7.

and lizards, are torpid, or nearly so, during the winter, the loss of their appetite for so long a time is the less surprising.

CHAP. IV.

OF THE CAMELEON, THE IGUANA, AND LIZARDS OF DIFFERENT KINDS.

It were to be wished that animals could be so classed, that by the very mentioning their rank, we should receive some insight into their history. This I have endeavoured in most instances; but in the present chapter all method is totally unserviceable. Here distribution gives no general ideas: for some of the animals to be here mentioned produce by eggs; some by spawn; and some are viviparous. The peculiar manner of propagating in each, is very indistinctly known. The Iguana and the Cameleon, we know bring forth eggs; some others also produce in the same manner; but of the rest, which naturalists make amount to above fifty, we have but very indistinct information.

In the former divisions of this tribe, we had to observe upon animals, formidable from their size, or disgusting from their frog-like head and appearance; in the present division. all the animals are either beautiful to the eye, or grateful to the appetite. The lizards, properly so called, are beautifully painted and mottled; their frolicksome agility is amusing to those who are familiar with their appearance; and the great affection which some of them show to man, should, in some measure be repaid with kindness. Others, such as the Iguana, though not possessed of beauty, are very serviceable, furnishing one of the most luxurious feasts the tropical climates can boast of. Those treated of before were objects of curiosity, because they were apparently objects of danger: most of these here mentioned have either use or beauty to engage us.

Directly descending from the crocodile, we find the Cordyle, the Tockay, and the Tejuguacu, all growing less in order, as I have named them. These fill up the chasm to be found between the crocodile and the African iguana.

The Iguana, which deserves our notice, is about five feet long, and the body about as thick as one's thigh: the skin is covered with small scales, like those of a serpent;

and the back is furnished with a row of prickles, that stand up, like the teeth of a saw: the eyes seem to be but half opened, except when the animal is angry, and then they appear large and sparkling: both the jaws are full of very sharp teeth, and the bite is dangerous, though not venomous, for it never lets loose till it is killed. The male has a skin hanging under his throat, which reaches down to his breast; and, when displeased, he puffs it up like a bladder: he is one-third larger and stronger than the female; though the strength of either avails them little towards their defence. The males are ash-coloured, and the females are green.

The flesh of these may be considered as the greatest delicacy of Africa and America; and the sportsmen of those climates go out to hunt the iguana, as we do in pursuit of the pheasant or the hare. In the beginning of the season, when the great floods of the tropical climates are past away, and vegetation starts into universal verdure, the sportsmen are seen, with a noose and a stick, wandering along the sides of the rivers to take the iguana. The animal, though apparently formed for combat, is the most harmless creature of all the forest: it lives among the trees, or sports in the water, without ever offering to offend; there, having fed upon the flowers of the mahot, and the leaves of the mapou, that grow along the banks of the stream, it goes to repose upon the branches of the trees that hang over the water. Upon the land the animal is swift of foot; but when once in possession of a tree, it seems conscious of the security of its situation, and never offers to stir. There the sportsman easily finds it, and as easily fastens his noose round its neck: if the head be placed in such a manner that the noose cannot readily be fastened, by hitting the animal a blow on the nose with the stick, it lifts the head, and offers it in some measure to the noose. In this manner, and also by the tail, the iguana is dragged from the trees, and killed by repeated blows on the head.

The Cameleon is a very different animal; and as the iguana satisfies the appetites of the epicure, this is rather the feast of the philosopher. Like the crocodile, this little animal proceeds from an egg; and it also nearly resembles that formidable creature in form: but it differs widely in its size and its appetites; being not above eleven inches

long, and delighting to sit upon trees, being afraid of serpents, from which it is unable to escape on the ground.

The head of a large cameleon is almost two inches long; and from thence to the beginning of the tail, four and a half: the tail is five inches long, and the feet two and a half: the thickness of the body is different at different times; for sometimes, from the back to the belly, it is two inches, and sometimes but one; for it can blow itself up, and contract itself at pleasure. This swelling and contraction is not only of the back and belly, but of the legs and tail.

These different tumors do not proceed from a dilatation of the breast in breathing, which rises and falls by turns; but are very irregular, and seem adopted merely from caprice. The cameleon is often seen, as it were, blown up for two hours together; and then it continues growing less and less insensibly; for the dilatation is always more quick and visible than the contraction. In this last state the animal appears extremely lean; the spine of the back seems sharp, and all the ribs may be counted; likewise the tendons of the legs and arms may be seen very distinctly.

This method of puffing itself up, is similar to that in pigeons, whose crops are sometimes greatly distended with air. The cameleon has a power of driving the air it breathes over every part of the body: however, it only gets between the skin and the muscles; for the muscles themselves are never swollen. The skin is very cold to the touch; and though the animal seems so lean, there is no feeling the beating of the heart. The surface of the skin is unequal, and has a grain not unlike shagreen, but very soft, because each eminence is as smooth as if it were polished. Some of these little protuberances are as large as a pin's head, on the arms, legs, belly, and tail; but on the shoulders and head they are of an oval figure, and a little larger: those under the throat are ranged in the form of a chaplet, from the lower lip to the breast. The colour of all these eminences, when the cameleon is at rest in a shady place, is of a bluish gray, and the space between is of a pale red and yellow.

But when the animal is removed into the sun, then comes the wonderful part of its history. At first it appears to

suffer no change of colour, its grayish spots still continuing the same: but the whole surface soon seems to imbibe the rays of light; and the simple colouring of the body changes into a variety of beautiful hues. Wherever the light comes upon the body, it is of a tawny brown; but that part of the skin on which the sun does not shine, changes into several brighter colours, pale yellow, or vivid crimson; which forms spots of the size of half one's finger: some of these descend from the spine half way down the back; and others appear on the sides, arms, and tail. When the sun has done shining, the original gray colour returns by degrees, and covers all the body. Sometimes the animal becomes all over spotted with brown spots, of a greenish cast. When it is wrapt up in a white linen cloth for two or three minutes, the natural colour becomes much lighter; but not quite white, as some authors have pretended: however, from hence it must not be concluded that the cameleon assumes the colour of the objects which it approaches; this is entirely an error; and probably has taken its rise from the continual changes it appears to undergo.

Le Bruyn, in his Voyage to the Levant, has given us a very ample description of the cameleon. During his stay at Smyrna, he bought several of this kind; and to try how long they could live, kept four of them in a cage, permitting them at times to run about the house. The fresh sea-breeze seemed to give them most spirits and vivacity; they opened their mouths to take it in; he never perceived that they eat any thing, except now and then a fly, which they took half an hour to swallow: he observed their colour often to change, three or four times successively, without being able to find out any cause for such alterations; their common colour he found to be gray, or rather a pale mouse colour; but its most frequent changes were into a beautiful green, spotted with yellow; sometimes the animal was marked all over with dark brown; and this often changed into a lighter brown: some colours, however, it never assumed; and, contrary to what was said above, he found red to be among the number.

Though our traveller took the utmost care, he was unable to preserve any of them alive above five months; and many of them died in four. When the cameleon changes place, and attempts to descend from an eminence, it moves

with the utmost precaution, advancing one leg very deliberately before the other, still securing itself by holding whatever it can grasp by the tail. It seldom opens its mouth, except for fresh air ; and when that is supplied, discovers its satisfaction by its motions, and the frequent changes of its colour. The tongue is sometimes darted out after its prey, which is flies ; and this is as long as the whole body. The eyes are remarkably little, though they stand out of the head : they have a single eye-lid, like a cap with a hole in the middle, through which the sight of the eye appears, which is of a shining brown ; and round it there is a little circle of a gold colour : but the most extraordinary part of their conformation is, that the animal often moves one eye, when the other is entirely at rest ; nay, sometimes one eye will seem to look directly forward, while the other looks backward ; and one will look upward, while the other regards the earth.

To this class of lizards, we may refer the Dragon, a most terrible animal, but most probably not of Nature's formation. Of this death-dealing creature all people have read ; and the most barbarous countries, to this day, paint it to the imagination in all its terrors, and fear to meet it in every forest. It is not enough that nature has furnished those countries with poisons of various malignity ; with serpents forty feet long ; with elephants, lions, and tigers ; to make their situation really dangerous, the capricious imagination is set at work to call up new terrors ; and scarce a savage is found that does not talk of winged serpents of immoderate length, flying away with the camel or the rhinoceros, or destroying mankind by a single glare. Happily, however, such ravagers are no where found to exist at present ; and the whole race of dragons is dwindled down to the Flying Lizard, a little harmless creature, that only preys upon insects, and even seems to embellish the forest with its beauty.

The Flying Lizard of Java perches upon fruit-trees, and feeds upon flies, ants, butterflies, and other small insects. It is a very harmless creature, and does no mischief in any respect. Gentil, in his Voyage round the World, affirms, that he has seen these lizards at the island of Java, in the East Indies. He observed they flew very swiftly from tree to tree ; and having killed one, he could not but admire the skin, which was painted with several beautiful colours : it was a foot in length, and had four paws, like the common

lizards ; but its head was flat, and had a small hole in the middle ; the wings were very thin, and resembled those of a flying-fish. About the neck were a sort of wattles, not unlike those of cocks, which gave it no disagreeable appearance. He intended to have preserved it, in order to bring it into Europe ; but it was corrupted by the heat, before the close of the day : however, they have since been brought into England, and are now common enough in the cabinets of the curious.

The last animal of the lizard kind that I shall mention, is the Chalcidian Lizard of Aldrovandus, very improperly called the Seps by modern historians. This animal seems to make the shade that separates the lizard from the serpent race. It has four legs, like the lizard ; but so short, as to be utterly unserviceable in walking : it has a long slender body, like the serpent ; and it is said to have the serpent's malignity also. The fore legs are very near the head ; the hind legs are placed far backward ; but before and behind they seem rather useless incumbrances, than instruments serving to assist the animal in its motions, or in providing for its subsistence. These animals are found above three feet long, and thick in proportion, with a large head and pointed snout. The whole body is covered with scales ; and the belly is white mixed with blue. It has four crooked teeth, as also a pointed tail, which, however, can inflict no wound. Whether the teeth be similar to the viper's fangs, we are not told ; though Volateranus says, they are covered with a membrane ; by which I am apt to think he means a venom-bag, which is found at the root of the teeth of all serpents that are poisonous. It is viviparous ; fifteen young ones having been taken alive out of its belly. Upon the whole, it appears to bear a strong affinity to the viper ; and, like that animal its bite may be dangerous.

[Besides these, it may be necessary to mention one more, the Basilisk, so dreadful to the imagination of our ancestors. It is, however, an inoffensive animal, a native of South America. It is distinguished by a long, conic, cap-like protuberance on the head, and a kind of fin like a fish along the back, which it can elevate or depress at pleasure ; and is about a foot and a half in length, of great agility, and is said to be able occasionally to swim with perfect ease.]

BOOK III.

OF SERPENTS, ETC.

CHAP. I.

OF SERPENTS IN GENERAL.

WE now come to a tribe that not only their deformity, their venom, their ready malignity, but also our prejudices, and our very religion, have taught us to detest. The serpent has, from the beginning, been the enemy of man; and it has hitherto continued to terrify and annoy him, notwithstanding all the arts that have been practised to destroy it. Formidable in itself, it deters the invader from the pursuit; and, from its figure, capable of finding shelter in a little space, it is not easily discovered by those who would venture to try the encounter. Thus possessed at once of potent arms and inaccessible or secure retreats, it baffles all the arts of man, though never so earnestly bent upon its destruction.

For this reason, there is scarce a country in the world that does not still give birth to this poisonous brood, that seem formed to quell human pride, and repress the boasts of security. Mankind have driven the lion, the tiger, and the wolf, from their vicinity; but the snake and the viper still defy their power, and frequently punish their insolence.

Their numbers, however, are thinned by human assiduity; and it is possible some of the kinds are wholly destroyed. In none of the countries of Europe are they sufficiently numerous to be truly terrible; the philosopher can meditate in the fields without danger; and the lover seek the grove without fearing any wounds but those of metaphor. The various malignity that has been ascribed to European serpents of old is now utterly unknown; there are not above three or four kinds that are dangerous, and their poison operates in all in the same manner. A burning pain in the

part, easily removeable by timely applications, is the worst effect that we experience from the bite of the most venomous serpents of Europe. The drowsy death, the starting of the blood from every pore, the insatiable and burning thirst, the melting down the solid mass of the whole form into one heap of putrefaction, these are horrors with which we are entirely unacquainted.

But though we have thus reduced these dangers, having been incapable of wholly removing them, in other parts of the world they still rage with all their ancient malignity. Nature seems to have placed them as centinels, to deter mankind from spreading too widely, and from seeking new abodes, till they have thoroughly cultivated those at home. In the warm countries that lie within the tropic, as well as in the cold regions of the north, where the inhabitants are few, the serpents propagate in equal proportion. But of all countries, those regions have them in the greatest abundance where the fields are unpeopled and fertile, and where the climate supplies warmth and humidity. All along the swampy banks of the river Niger or Oroonoko, where the sun is hot, the forests thick, and the men but few, the serpents cling among the branches of the trees in infinite numbers, and carry on an unceasing war against all other animals in their vicinity. Travellers have assured us, that they have often seen large snakes twining round the trunk of a tall tree, encompassing it like a wreath, and thus rising and descending at pleasure. In these countries, therefore, the serpent is too formidable to become an object of curiosity, for it excites much more violent sensations.

We are not, therefore, to reject, as wholly fabulous, the accounts left us by the ancients of the terrible devastations committed by a single serpent. It is probable, in early times, when the arts were little known, and mankind were but thinly scattered over the earth, that serpents, continuing undisturbed possessors of the forest, grew to an amazing magnitude; and every other tribe of animals fell before them. It then might have happened, that serpents reigned the tyrants of a district for centuries together. To animals of this kind, grown by time and rapacity to a hundred or a hundred and fifty feet in length, the lion, the tiger, and even the elephant itself, were but feeble oppo-

nents. The dreadful monster spread desolation round him ; every creature that had life was devoured, or fled to a distance. That horrible *fætor*, which even the commonest and the most harmless snakes are still found to diffuse, might, in these larger ones, become too powerful for any living being to withstand ; and while they preyed without distinction, they might thus also have poisoned the atmosphere around them. In this manner, having for ages, lived in the hidden and unpeopled forest, and finding, as their appetites were more powerful, the quantity of their prey decreasing, it is possible they might venture boldly from their retreats, into the more cultivated parts of the country, and carry consternation among mankind, as they had before desolation among the lower ranks of nature. We have many histories of antiquity, presenting us such a picture ; and exhibiting a whole nation sinking under the ravages of a single serpent. At that time, man had not learned the art of uniting the efforts of many, to effect one great purpose. Opposing multitudes only added new victims to the general calamity, and increased mutual embarrassment and terror. The animal was, therefore, to be singly opposed by him who had the greatest strength, the best armour, and the most undaunted courage. In such an encounter hundreds must have fallen ; till one, more lucky than the rest, by a fortunate blow, or by taking the monster in its torpid interval, and surcharged with spoil, might kill, and thus rid his country of the destroyer. Such was the original occupation of heroes : and those who first obtained that name, from their destroying the ravagers of the earth, gained it much more deservedly than their successors, who acquired their reputation only for their skill in destroying each other. But as we descend into more enlightened antiquity, we find these animals less formidable, as being attacked in a more successful manner. We are told, that while Regulus led his army along the banks of the river Bagrada, in Africa, an enormous serpent disputed his passage over. We are assured by Pliny, who says, that he himself saw the skin, that it was a hundred and twenty feet long, and that it had destroyed many of the army. At last, however, the battering engines were brought out against it ; and these assailing it at a distance, it was soon destroyed. Its spoils were car-

ried to Rome, and the general was decreed an ovation for his success. There are, perhaps, few facts better ascertained in history than this: an ovation was a remarkable honour; and was given only for some signal exploit that did not deserve a triumph: no historian would offer to invent that part of the story at least, without being subject to the most shameful detection. The skin was kept for several years after in the Capitol; and Pliny says, he saw it there: now, though Pliny was a credulous writer, he was by no means a *false* one; and whatever he says he has seen, we may very safely rely on. At present, indeed, such ravages from serpents are scarcely seen in any part of the world; not but that in Africa and America some of them are powerful enough to brave the assaults of men to this day.

But, happily for us, we are placed at such a distance as to take a view of this tribe without fearing for our safety; we can survey their impotent malignity with the same delight with which the poet describes the terrors of a dead monster.

Nequeant expleri corda tuendo
Terribiles oculos villosaque setis pectore.

To us their slender form, their undulating motion, their vivid colouring, their horrid stench, their forked tongue, and their envenomed fangs, are totally harmless; and in this country their uses even serve to counterbalance the mischief they sometimes occasion.

If we take a survey of serpents in general, they have marks by which they are distinguished from all the rest of animated nature. They have the length and the suppleness of the eel, but want fins to swim with: they have the scaly covering and pointed tail of the lizard, but they want legs to walk with; they have the crawling motion of the worm, but, unlike that animal, they have lungs to breathe with: like all the reptile kind, they are resentful when offended; and nature has supplied them with terrible arms to revenge every injury.

Though they are possessed of very different degrees of malignity, yet they are all formidable to man, and have a strong similitude of form to each other; and it will be proper to mark the general character before we descend to particulars. With respect to their conformation, all

serpents have a very wide mouth, in proportion to the size of the head; and, what is very extraordinary, they can gape and swallow the head of another animal which is three times as big as their own. I have seen a toad taken out of the belly of a snake, at Lord Spencer's, near London, the body of which was thrice the diameter of the animal that swallowed it. However, it is no way surprising that the skin of the snake should stretch to receive so large a morsel: the wonder seems how the jaws could take it in. To explain this, it must be observed that the jaws of this animal do not open as ours, in the manner of a pair of hinges, where bones are applied to bones, and play upon one another; on the contrary, the serpent's jaws are held together at the roots by a stretching muscular skin; by which means they open as widely as the animal chooses to stretch them, and admit of a prey much thicker than the snake's own body. The throat, like stretching leather, dilates to admit the morsel; the stomach receives it in part; and the rest remains in the gullet, till putrefaction and the juices of the serpent's body unite to dissolve it.

As to the teeth, I will talk more of them when I come to treat of the viper's poison; it will be sufficient here to observe, that some serpents have fangs, or canine teeth, and others are without them. The teeth in all are crooked and hollow; and, by a peculiar contrivance, are capable of being erected or depressed at pleasure.

The eyes of all serpents are small, if compared to the length of the body; and though differently coloured in different kinds, yet the appearance of all is malign and heavy; and, from their known qualities, they strike the imagination with the idea of a creature meditating mischief. In some, the upper eye-lid is wanting, and the serpent winks only with that below; in others, the animal has a nictitating membrane or skin, resembling that which is found in birds, which keeps the eye clean, and preserves the sight. The substance of the eye in all is hard and horny; the crystalline humour occupying a great part of the globe.

The holes for hearing are very visible in all: but there are no conduits for smelling; though it is probable that some of them enjoy that sense in tolerable perfection.

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and in the water; an
like the bat, the li
same manner.

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double instrument of
treats; and it is said
they appear like one

this remark is founded in truth, I do not find any of the moderns that can resolve me.

As the body of this animal is long, slender, and capable of bending in every direction, the number of joints in the back-bone are numerous beyond what one would imagine. In the generality of quadrupeds, they amount to not above thirty or forty; in the serpent kind they amount to a hundred and forty-five from the head to the vent, and twenty-five more from that to the tail.* The number of these joints must give the back-bone a surprising degree of pliancy; but this is still increased by the manner in which each of these joints are locked into the other. In man and quadrupeds, the flat surfaces of the bones are laid one against the other, and bound tight by sinews; but in serpents, the bones play one within the other, like ball and socket, so that they have full motion upon each other in every direction.† Thus, if a man were to form a machine composed of so many joints as are found in the back of a serpent, he would find it no easy matter to give it such strength and pliancy at the same time. The chain of a watch is but a bungling piece of workmanship in comparison.

Though the number of joints in the back-bone is great, yet that of the ribs is still greater; for, from the head to the vent, there are two ribs to every joint, which makes their number two hundred and ninety in all. These ribs are furnished with muscles, four in number; which being inserted into the head, run along to the end of the tail, and give the animal great strength and agility in all its motions.

The skin also contributes to its motions, being composed of a number of scales, united to each other by a transparent membrane, which grows harder as it grows older, until the animal changes, which is generally done twice a year. This cover then bursts near the head, and the serpent creeps from it, by an undulatory motion, in a new skin, much more vivid than the former. If the old slough be then viewed, every scale will be distinctly seen, like a piece of net-work, and will be found greatest where the part of the body they covered was largest.

* Vide Charat. Anatom.

† Derham, p. 396.

There is much geometrical neatness in the disposal of the serpent's scales for assisting the animal's sinuous motion. As the edges of the foremost scales lie over the ends of their following scales, so those edges, when the scales are erected, which the animal has a power of doing in a small degree, catch in the ground, like the nails in the wheel of a chariot, and so promote and facilitate the animal's progressive motion. The erecting these scales is by means of a multitude of distinct muscles, with which each is supplied, and one end of which is tacked each to the middle of the foregoing.

In some of the serpent kind there is the exactest symmetry in these scales; in others, they are disposed more irregularly. In some, there are larger scales on the belly, and often answering to the number of ribs; in others, however, the animal is without them. Upon this slight difference Linnæus has founded his distinctions of the various classes of the serpent tribe. Human curiosity, however, and even human interest, seem to plead for a very different method of distribution. It is not the number of scales on a formidable animal's belly, nor their magnitude or variety, that any way excite our concern. The first question that every man will naturally ask, when he hears of a snake, is, whether it be large? the second, whether it be venomous? In other words, the strongest lines in the animal's history are those that first excite our attention; and these it is every historian's business to display.

When we come to compare serpents with each other, the first great distinction appears in their size; no other tribe of animals differing so widely in this particular. What, for instance, can be so remotely separated as the Great Liboya of Surinam, that grows to thirty-six feet long; and the Little Serpent, at the Cape of Good Hope, and the north of the river Senegal, that is not above three inches, and covers whole sandy deserts with its multitudes! This tribe of animals, like that of fishes, seems to have no bounds put to their growth: their bones are, in a great measure, cartilaginous, and they are, consequently, capable of great extension: the older, therefore, a serpent becomes, the larger it grows; and as they seem to live to a great age, they arrive at an enormous size.

Leguat assures us, that he saw one in Java that was fifty

feet long. Carli mentions their growing to above forty feet ; and we have now the skin of one in the Museum, that measures thirty-two. Mr. Wentworth, who had large concerns in the Berbices, in America, assures me, that, in that country, they grow to an enormous length. He one day sent out a soldier, with an Indian, to kill wild fowl for the table ; and they accordingly went some miles from the fort : in pursuing their game, the Indian, who generally marched before, beginning to tire, went to rest himself upon the fallen trunk of a tree, as he supposed it to be ; but when he was just going to sit down, the enormous monster began to move, and the poor savage perceiving that he had approached a Liboya, the greatest of all the serpent kind, dropped down in an agony. The soldier, who perceived, at some distance, what had happened, levelled at the serpent's head, and, by a lucky aim, shot it dead : however, he continued his fire until he was assured that the animal was killed ; and then going up to rescue his companion, who was fallen motionless by its side, he, to his astonishment, found him dead likewise, being killed by the fright. Upon his return to the fort, and telling what had happened, Mr. Wentworth ordered the animal to be brought up, when it was measured, and found to be thirty-six feet long. He had the skin stuffed, and then sent to Europe, as a present to the Prince of Orange, in whose cabinet it is now to be seen at the Hague ; but the skin has shrunk, by drying, two or three feet.

In the East Indies they grow also to an enormous size ; particularly in the island of Java, where, we are assured, that one of them will destroy and devour a buffalo. In a letter, printed in the German Ephemerides, we have an account of a combat between an enormous serpent and a buffalo, by a person, who assures us that he was himself a spectator. The serpent had, for some time, been waiting near the brink of a pool, in expectation of its prey ; when a buffalo was the first that offered. Having darted upon the affrighted animal, it instantly began to wrap it round with its voluminous twistings ; and, at every twist, the bones of the buffalo were heard to crack almost as loud as the report of a cannon. It was in vain that the poor animal struggled and bellowed ; its enormous enemy entwined it too closely to get free ; till, at length, all its bones being

mashed to pieces, like those of a malefactor on the wheel, and the whole body reduced to one uniform mass, the serpent untwined its folds to swallow its prey at leisure. To prepare for this, and in order to make the body slip down the throat more glibly, it was seen to lick the whole body over, and thus cover it with its mucus. It then began to swallow it at that end that offered least resistance; while its length of body was dilated to receive its prey, and thus took in at once a morsel that was three times its own thickness. We are assured by travellers, that these animals are often found with the body of a stag in their gullet, while the horns, which they are unable to swallow, keep sticking out at their mouths.

But it is happy for mankind that the rapacity of these frightful creatures is often their punishment; for whenever any of the serpent kind have gorged themselves in this manner, whenever their body is seen particularly distended with food, they then become torpid, and may be approached and destroyed with safety. Patient of hunger to a surprising degree, whenever they seize and swallow their prey, they seem, like surfeited gluttons, unwieldy, stupid, helpless, and sleepy: they, at that time, seek some retreat, where they may lurk for several days together, and digest their meal in safety: the smallest effort, at that time, is capable of destroying them; they can scarcely make any resistance; and they are equally unqualified for flight or opposition: that is the happy opportunity of attacking them with success; at that time the naked Indian himself does not fear to assail them. But it is otherwise when this sleepy interval of digestion is over: they then issue, with famished appetites, from their retreats, and with accumulated terrors, while every animal of the forest flies before them.

Carli describes the Long Serpent of Congo making its track through the tall grass, like mowers in a summer's day. He could not, without terror, behold whole lines of grass lying levelled under the sweep of its tail. In this manner it moved forward with great rapidity, until it found a proper situation frequented by its prey: there it continued to lurk, in patient expectation, and would have remained for weeks together, had it not been disturbed by the natives.

Other creatures have a choice in their provision; but the serpent indiscriminately preys upon all; the buffalo, the tiger, and the gazelle. One would think that the porcupine's quills might be sufficient to protect it; but whatever has life serves to appease the hunger of these devouring creatures: porcupines, with all their quills, have frequently been found in their stomachs, when killed and opened; nay, they most frequently are seen to devour each other.

A life of savage hostility in the forest offers the imagination one of the most tremendous pictures in nature. In those burning countries, where the sun dries up every brook for hundreds of miles round; when what had the appearance of a great river in the rainy season, becomes, in summer, one dreary bed of sand—in those countries, I say, a lake that is never dry, or a brook that is perennial, is considered by every animal as the greatest convenience of nature. As to food, the luxuriant landscape supplies that in sufficient abundance: it is the want of water that all animals endeavour to remove; and inwardly parched by the heat of the climate, traverse whole deserts to find out a spring. When they have discovered this, no dangers can deter them from attempting to slake their thirst. Thus the neighbourhood of a rivulet, in the heart of the tropical continents, is generally the place where all the hostile tribes of nature draw up for the engagement. On the banks of this little envied spot, thousands of animals of various kinds are seen venturing to quench their thirst, or preparing to seize their prey. The elephants are perceived, in a long line, marching from the darker parts of the forest; the buffaloes are there, depending upon numbers for security; the gazelles, relying solely upon their swiftness; the lion and tiger, waiting a proper opportunity to seize; but chiefly the larger serpents are upon guard there, and defend the accesses of the lake. Not an hour passes without some dreadful combat; but the serpent, defended by its scales, and naturally capable of sustaining a multitude of wounds, is, of all others, the most formidable. It is the most wakeful also; for the whole tribe sleep with their eyes open, and are, consequently, for ever upon the watch: so that, till their rapacity is satisfied, few other animals will venture to approach their station.

But though these animals are, of all others, the most voracious, and though the morsel which they swallow without chewing is greater than what any other creature, either by land or water, the whale itself not excepted, can devour, yet no animals upon earth bear abstinence so long as they. A single meal, with many of the snake kind, seems to be the adventure of a season; it is an occurrence for which they have been for weeks, nay, sometimes for months, in patient expectation of. When they have seized their prey, their industry, for several weeks, is entirely discontinued; the fortunate capture of an hour often satisfies them for the remaining period of their annual activity. As their blood is colder than that of most other terrestrial animals, and as it circulates but slowly through their bodies, so their powers of digestion are but feeble. Their prey continues for a long time, partly in the stomach, partly in the gullet, and a part is often seen hanging out of the mouth. In this manner, it digests by degrees; and in proportion as the part below is dissolved, the part above is taken in. It is not, therefore, till this tedious operation is entirely performed that the serpent renews its appetite and its activity. But should any accident prevent it from issuing once more from its cell, it still can continue to bear famine for weeks, months, nay, for years together. Vipers are often kept in boxes for six or eight months without any food whatever; and there are little serpents sometimes sent over to Europe from Grand Cairo, the name of which I have not been able to learn, that live, for several years, in glasses, and never eat at all, nor even stain the glass with their excrements. Thus the serpent tribe unite, in themselves, two very opposite qualities; wonderful abstinence, and yet incredible rapacity.

If, leaving the consideration of their appetites, we come to compare serpents, as to their voices, some are found silent, some have a peculiar cry; but hissing is the sound which they most commonly send forth, either as a call to their kind, or as a threat to their enemies. In the countries where they abound; they are generally silent in the middle of the day, when they are obliged to retire from the heat of the climate; but as the cool of the evening approaches, they are then heard issuing from their cells with continued hissings; and such is the variety of their notes,

that some have assured me they very much resemble the music of an English grove. This some will hardly credit—at any rate, such notes, however pleasing, can give but very little delight, when we call to mind the malignity of the minstrel. If considered, indeed, as they answer the animal's own occasions, they will be found well adapted to its nature, and fully answering the purposes of terrifying such as would venture to offend it.

With respect to motion, some serpents, particularly those of the viper kind, move slowly; while others, such as the *Ammodytes*, dart with amazing swiftness. The motion in all is similar; but the strength of body in some gives a very different appearance. The viper, that is but a slow feeble-bodied animal, makes way in a heavy undulating manner; advancing its head, then drawing up its tail behind, and bending the body into a bow; then, from the spot where the head and tail were united, advancing the head forward as before. This, which is the motion of all serpents, is very different from that of the earth-worm, or the naked snail. The serpent, as was said above, has a back-bone with numerous joints, and this bone the animal has a power of bending in every direction, but without being able to shorten or lengthen it at pleasure. The earth-worm, on the other hand, has no back-bone; but its body is composed of rings, which, like a barber's puff, it can lengthen or shorten as it finds necessary. The earth-worm, therefore, in order to move forward, lengthens the body; then, by the fore part clings to the ground, where it has reached, and then contracts and brings up its rear: then, when the body is thus shortened, the fore part is lengthened again for another progression; and so on. The serpent, instead of shortening the body, bends it into an arch; and this is the principal difference between serpentine and vermicular progression.

I have instanced this motion in the viper, as most easily discerned; but there are many serpents that dart with such amazing swiftness, that they appear rather to leap than crawl. It most probable, however, that no serpent can dart upon even ground farther than its own length at one effort. Our fears, indeed, may increase the force of their speed, which is sometimes found so fatal. We are told by

some, that they will dart to a very great distance; but this my inquiries have never been able to ascertain. The manner of progression in the swiftest serpent we know, which is the jaculus, is by instantly coiling itself upon its tail, and darting from thence to its full extent; then carrying the tail as quick as lightning to the head, coiling and darting again; and by this means proceeding with extreme rapidity, without ever quitting the ground. Indeed, if we consider the length and the weakness of the back-bone in all these animals; if we regard the make of their vertebræ, in which we shall find the junctures all formed to give play, and none to give power; we cannot be of opinion that they have a faculty of springing from the ground, as they entirely want a *fulcrum*, if I may so express it, from whence to take their spring; the whole body being composed of unsupported muscles and joints that are yielding. It must be confessed, that they dart down from trees upon their prey; but their weight alone is sufficient for that purpose without much effort of their own.

Though all serpents are amphibious, some are much fonder of the water than others; and, though destitute of fins or gills, remain at the bottom, or swim along the surface with great ease. From their internal structure, just sketched above, we see how well adapted they are for either element; and how capable their blood is of circulating at the bottom, as freely as in the frog or the tortoise. They can, however, endure to live in fresh-water only; for salt is an effectual bane to the whole tribe. The greatest serpents are most usually found in fresh-water, either choosing it as their favourite element, or finding their prey in such places in the greatest abundance. But that all will live and swim in liquids appears from the experiment of Rhedi; who put a serpent into a large glass vessel of wine, where it lived swimming about six hours; though, when it was, by force, immersed and kept under that liquid, it lived only one hour and a half. He put another in common water, where it lived three days; but when it was kept under water, it lived only about twelve hours.* Their motion there, however, is perfectly the reverse of what it is upon land; for, in order to support themselves upon an element lighter than their bodies, they are obliged to increase their

* Rhedi, Exper. p. 170.

surface in a very artificial manner. On earth their windings are perpendicular to the surface; in water they are parallel to it; in other words, if I should wave my hand up and down, it will give an idea of the animal's progress on land; if I should wave it to the right and left, it will give some idea of its progress on the water.

Some serpents have a most horrible factor attending them, which is alone capable of intimidating the brave. This proceeds from two glands near the vent, like those in the weasel or polecat; and, like those animals, in proportion as they are excited by rage, or by fear, the scent grows stronger. It would seem, however, that such serpents as are most venomous, are least offensive in this particular; since the rattlesnake and the viper have no smell whatever: nay, we are told that at Calicut and Cranganon, in the East Indies, there are some very noxious serpents who are so far from being disagreeable, that their excrements are sought after, and kept as the most pleasing perfume. The Esculapian Serpent is also of this number.

Some serpents bring forth their young alive, as the viper; some bring forth eggs, which are hatched by the heat of their situation: as the common black snake, and the majority of the serpent tribe. When a reader, ignorant of anatomy, is told, that some of those animals produce their young alive, and that some produce eggs only, he is apt to suppose a very great difference in the internal conformation, which makes such a variety in the manner of bringing forth. But this is not the case: these animals are internally alike, in whatever manner they produce their young; and the variety in their bringing forth is rather a slight, than a real discrimination. The only difference is, that the viper hatches her eggs, and brings them to maturity within her body; the snake is more premature in her productions, and sends her eggs into the light some time before the young ones are capable of leaving the shell. Thus, if either are opened, the eggs will be found in the womb, covered with their membranous shell, and adhering to each other like large beads on a string. In the eggs of both, young ones will be found, though at different stages of maturity: those of the viper will crawl and bite the moment the shell that encloses them is broke open; those of the snake are not yet arrived at their perfect form.

Father Labat took a serpent of the viper kind, that was nine feet long, and ordered it to be opened in his presence. He then saw the manner in which the eggs of these animals lie in the womb. In this creature there were six eggs, each of the size of a goose egg, but longer, more pointed, and covered with a membranous skin, by which also they were united to each other. Each of these eggs contained from thirteen to fifteen young ones, about six inches long, and as thick as a goose-quill. Though the female from whence they were taken was spotted, the young seemed to have a variety of colours very different from the parent ; and this led the traveller to suppose that the colour was no characteristic mark among serpents. These little mischievous animals were no sooner let loose from the shell than they crept about, and put themselves into a threatening posture, coiling themselves up, and biting the stick with which he was destroying them. In this manner he killed seventy-four young ones ; those that were contained in one of the eggs escaped at the place where the female was killed by the bursting of the egg, and their getting among the bushes.

The last distinction that I shall mention, but the most material among serpents, is, that some are venomous, and some inoffensive. If we consider the poison of serpents as it relates to man, there is no doubt but that it is a scourge and an affliction. The various calamities that the poison of serpents is capable of producing, are not only inflicted by the animal itself, but by men, more mischievous than even serpents, who prepare their venom to destroy each other. With this the savages poison their arms, and also prepare their revengeful potions. The ancients were known to preserve it for the purposes of suicide ; and even among semi-barbarous countries at this day, the venom of snakes is used as a philtre.

But, though the poison be justly terrible to us, it has been given to very good purposes for the animal's own proper support and defence. Without this, serpents, of all other animals, would be the most exposed and defenceless : without feet for escaping a pursuit ; without teeth capable of inflicting a dangerous wound, or without strength for resistance ; incapable, from their size, of finding security in very small retreats, like the earth-worm, and disgusting all from

their deformity, nothing was left for them but a speedy extirpation. But furnished as they are with powerful poison, every rank of animals approach them with dread, and never seize them but at an advantage. Nor is this all the advantage they derive from it. The malignity of a few serves for the protection of all. Though not above a tenth of their number are actually venomous, yet the similitude they all bear to each other excites a general terror of the whole tribe; and the uncertainty of their enemies in which the poison chiefly resides, makes even the most harmless formidable.—Thus Providence seems to have acted with double precaution; it has given some of them poison, for the general defence of a tribe naturally feeble; but it has thinned the numbers of those which are venomous, lest they should become too powerful for the rest of animated nature.

From these noxious qualities in the serpent kind, it is no wonder that not only man, but beasts and birds, carry on an unceasing war against them. The ichneumon of the Indians, and the peccary of America, destroy them in great numbers. These animals have the art of seizing them near the head; and it is said that they can skin them with great dexterity. The vulture and the eagle also prey upon them in great abundance; and often sousing down from the clouds, drop upon a long serpent, which they snatch up struggling and writhing in the air. Dogs are also bred up to oppose them. Father Feuillee tells us, that being in the woods of Martinico, he was attacked by a large serpent, which he could not easily avoid, when his dog immediately came to his relief, and seized the assailant with great courage. The serpent entwined him, and pressed him so violently, that the blood came out of his mouth, and yet the dog never ceased till he had torn it to pieces. The dog was not sensible of his wounds during the fight; but soon after his head swelled prodigiously, and he lay on the ground as dead. But his master having found hard by a banana-tree, he applied its juice, mixed with treacle, to the wounds, which recovered the dog, and quickly healed his sores.

But it is in man that these venomous creatures find the most dangerous enemy. The Psylli of old were famous for charming and destroying serpents. Some moderns pretend to the same art. Casaubon says, that he knew a man who could at any time summon a hundred serpents together, and

draw them into the fire. Upon a certain occasion, when one of them, bigger than the rest, would not be brought in, he only repeated his charm, and it came forward, like the rest, to submit to the flames. Philostratus describes particularly how the Indians charm serpents. "They take a scarlet robe, embroidered with golden letters, and spread it before a serpent's hole. The golden letters have a fascinating power; and, by looking stedfastly, the serpent's eyes are overcome and laid asleep." These, and many other feats, have been often practised upon these animals by artful men, who had first prepared the serpents for their exercise, and then exhibited them as adventitiously assembled at their call. In India there is nothing so common as dancing serpents, which are carried about in a broad flat vessel, somewhat resembling a sieve. These erect and put themselves in motion at the word of command. When their keeper sings a slow tune, they seem by their heads to keep time; when he sings a quicker measure, they appear to move more brisk and lively. All animals have a certain degree of docility; and we find that serpents themselves can be brought to move and approach at the voice of their master. From this trick, successfully practised before the ignorant, it is most probable has arisen all the boasted pretensions which some have made to charming of serpents; an art to which the native Americans pretend at this very day. One of Linnæus's pupils, we are told, purchased the secret from an Indian, and then discovered it to his master; but, like all secrets of the kind, it is probable this ended in a few unmeaning words of no efficacy.

Though the generality of mankind regard this formidable race with horror, yet there have been some nations, and there are some at this day, that consider them with veneration and regard. The adoration paid by the ancient Egyptians to a serpent is well known: many of the nations at present along the western coast of Africa retain the same unaccountable veneration. Upon the gold and slave coasts, a stranger, upon entering the cottages of the natives, is often surprised to see the roof swarming with serpents, that cling there without molesting, and unmolested by the natives. But his surprise will increase upon going farther southward to the kingdom of Widah, when he finds that a serpent is the god of the country. This animal, which

travellers describe as a huge overgrown creature, has its habitation, its temple, and its priests. These impress the vulgar with an opinion of its virtues ; and numbers are daily seen to offer not only their goods, their provisions, and their prayers, at the shrine of their hideous deity, but also their wives and daughters.—These the priests readily accept of, and after some days of penance, return them to their suppliants, much benefitted by the serpent's supposed embraces. Such a complicated picture of ignorance and imposture gives no very favourable impressions of our fellow-creatures ; but we may say, in defence of human nature, that the most frightful of reptiles is worshipped by the most uncultivated and barbarous of mankind.

From this general picture of the serpent tribe, one great distinction obviously presents itself ; namely, into those that are venomous, and those that are wholly destitute of poison. To the first belong the viper, the rattle-snake, the cobra di capello, and all their affinities : to the other, the common black snake, the liboya, the boiguacu, the amphisbæna, and various others, that, though destitute of venom, do not cease to be formidable. I will, therefore, give their history separately, beginning with the venomous class, as they have the strongest claims to our notice and attention.

CHAP. II.

OF VENOMOUS SERPENTS IN GENERAL.

THE poison of serpents has been for ages one of the greatest objects of human consideration. To us, who seldom feel the vengeful wound, it is merely a subject of curiosity ; but to those placed in the midst of the serpent tribe, who are every day exposed to some new disaster, it becomes a matter of the most serious importance. To remedy the bite of a serpent is considered, among our physicians, as one of the slightest operations in medicine : but among the physicians of the East, the antidotes for this calamity make up the bulk of their dispensaries. In our colder climates, the venom does not appear with that instantaneous operation which it exhibits in the warmer regions ; for either its powers are less exquisite, or our fluids are not carried round in such rapid circulation.

In all countries, however, the poison of the serpent is suf-

sufficiently formidable to deserve notice, and to excite our attention to its nature and effects. It will, therefore, in the first place be proper to describe its seat in the animal, as also the instrument by which the wound is made, and the poison injected. In all this venomous class of reptiles, whether the viper, the rattle-snake, or the cobra di capello, there are two large teeth or fangs that issue from the upper jaw, and that hang out beyond the lower. The rest of the snake tribe are destitute of these; and it is most probable that wherever these fangs are wanting, the animal is harmless; on the contrary, wherever they are found, it is to be avoided as the most pestilent enemy. These are the instruments that seem to place the true distinction between animals of the serpent kind: the wounds which these fangs inflict produce the most dangerous symptoms: the wounds inflicted by the teeth only are attended with nothing more than the ordinary consequences attending the bite of any other animal. Our first great attention, therefore, upon seeing a serpent, should be directed to the teeth. If it has the fang teeth, it is to be placed among the venomous class; if it wants them, it may be set down as inoffensive. I am not ignorant that many serpents are said to be dangerous whose jaws are unfurnished with fangs; but it is most probable that our terrors only have furnished these animals with venom; for of all the tribe whose teeth are thus formed, not one will be found to have a bag for containing poison, nor a conduit for injecting it into the wound. The Black snake, the Liboya, the Blind Worm, and a hundred others that might be mentioned, have their teeth of an equal size, fixed into the jaws, and with no other apparatus for inflicting a dangerous wound than a dog or a lizard: but it is otherwise with the venomous tribe we are now describing; these are well furnished, not only with an elaboratory where the poison is formed, but a canal by which it is conducted to the jaw, a bag under the tooth for keeping it ready for every occasion, and also an aperture in the tooth itself for injecting it into the wound. To be more particular: the glands that serve to fabricate this venomous fluid are situated on each side of the head behind the eyes, and have their canals leading from thence to the bottom of the fangs in the upper jaw, where they empty into a kind of bladder, from whence

the fangs on each side are seen to grow. The venom contained in this bladder is a yellowish thick tasteless liquor, which injected into the blood is death, yet which may be swallowed without any danger.

The fangs that give the wound, come next under observation; they are large in proportion to the size of the animal that bears them; crooked, yet sharp enough to inflict a ready wound. They grow one on each side, and sometimes two, from two moveable bones in the upper jaw, which by sliding backward or forward, have a power of erecting or depressing the teeth at pleasure. In these bones are also fixed many teeth, but no way venomous, and only serving to take and hold the animal's prey. Besides this apt disposition of the fangs, they are hollow within, and have an opening towards the point, like the slit of a pen, through which, when the fang is pressed down upon the bladder where it grows, there is seen to issue a part of the venom that lay below. To describe this operation at once: when the serpent is irritated to give a venomous wound, it opens its formidable jaws to the widest extent; the moveable bones of the upper jaw slide forward; the fangs that lay before inclining are thus erected; they are struck with force into the flesh of the obnoxious person; by meeting resistance at the points, they press upon the bladders of venom from whence they grow; the venom issues up through the hollow of the tooth, and is pressed out through its slit into the wound, which by this time the tooth has made in the skin. Thus from a slight puncture, and the infusion of a drop of venom scarcely larger than the head of a pin, the part is quickly inflamed, and, without a proper antidote, the whole frame contaminated.

The appearances which this venom produces are different, according to the serpent that wounds, or the season, or the strength of the animal that strikes the blow. If a viper inflicts the wound, and the remedy be neglected, the symptoms are not without danger. It first causes an acute pain in the place affected, attended with a swelling, first red, and afterwards livid. This by degrees spreads to the neighbouring parts; great faintness, and a quick, though low and interrupted, pulse ensues; to this succeed great sickness at the stomach, bilious and convulsive vomitings, cold sweats, pains about the navel, and death itself. But the violence

of these symptoms depends much on the season of the year, the difference of the climate, the size or rage of the animal, and the depth and situation of the wound. These symptoms are much more violent, and succeed each other more rapidly, after the bite of a rattle-snake ; but when the person is bit by the cobra di capello, he dies in an hour, his whole frame being dissolved into a putrid mass of corruption.

Nothing surely can more justly excite our wonder, than that so small a quantity of venom should produce such powerful and deadly effects. If the venom itself be examined through a microscope, it will be found to shoot into little crystals, that, to an imagination already impressed with its potency, look like so many darts fit for entering the blood-vessels, and wounding their tender coats. But all these darts are wholly of our own making: the softest, mildest fluid whatever, possessed of any consistency, will form crystals under the eye of the microscope, and put on an appearance exactly like the venom of the viper. In fact, this venom has no acrid taste whatever ; and to all experiments that our senses can make upon it, appears a slimy insipid fluid. Charas, who often tasted it, assures us of the fact ; and asserts, that it may be taken inwardly without any sensible effects, or any prejudice to the constitution. But the famous experiments that were tried by Rhedi and others, in the presence of the Great Duke of Tuscany and his court, put this beyond any doubt whatsoever. By these it appeared, that the serpent having once bitten, exhausted for that time the greatest part of its poison ; and though the wound caused by its biting a second time was attended with some malignant symptoms, yet they were much milder than before. It appeared that the serpent biting upon a sponge, or a piece of soft bread, and then biting a dog immediately after, did not inflict a wound more dangerous than the prick of a needle. It appeared that the venom being collected, and a needle dipped therein, this produced almost as painful effects as the tooth of the animal itself. But what caused the greatest surprise in the court was, the seeming rashness of one Tozzi, a viper-catcher ; who while the philosophers were giving elaborate lectures on the danger of the poison when taken internally, boldly desired a large quantity of it might be put together ; and then, with

the utmost confidence, drank it off before them all. The court was struck with astonishment, and expected that the man would instantly fall dead ; but they soon perceived their mistake, and found that taken in this manner, the poison was as harmless as water ; so true is that famous passage of Lucan,

*Noxia serpentum est admixto sanguine pestis :
Morsu virus habent, et fatus in dento minantur :
Pocula morte carent.*

What then shall we say to the speedy effect of so seemingly harmless a liquid taken into the circulation ? Let us first observe, that milk is one of the most mild and nourishing of all fluids, and seemingly the most friendly to the human constitution ; yet if milk be injected into a vein, it will quickly become fatal, and kill with more certain destruction than even the venom of the viper. From hence then we may infer, that the introducing not only the serpentine venom, but also a quantity of any other mixture, into the circulation, will be fatal ; and that, consequently, serpents kill as well by their power of injecting the wound as by the potency of their poison. Some indeed may inject a more acrimonious mixture, and this may produce more speedy effects ; but any mixture thus injected would be dangerous, and many would be fatal.

Ray gives us an instance of the potency of the serpent-poison ; which though it has all the air of a fable, I cannot help transcribing. “ A gentleman who went over to the East Indies, while he was one day sitting among some friends, was accosted by an Indian juggler, who offered to shew him some experiments respecting the venom of serpents ; an exhibition usual enough in that country. Having first, therefore, produced a large serpent, he assured the company that it was harmless ; and to convince them of what he said, he tied up his arm, as his usual with those who are going to be bled, and whipped the serpent till it was provoked to bite him. Having drawn in this manner about half a spoonful of blood from his arm, he put the congealed clot upon his thigh. He then took out a much smaller serpent, which was no other than the cobra di capello ; and having tied up his neck, he procured about half a drop of its venom, which he sprinkled on the clot of blood on his thigh, which instantly began to ferment and bubble, and soon changed colour from a red into a yellow.”

This he pretended was caused by the extreme malignity of that animal's venom : however, I have no doubt that the whole is either a fable, or a trick of the Indian ; who, while he seemed to mix the serpent's venom, actually infused some stronger ingredient, some mineral acid, into the mass of blood, which was capable of working such a change. It cannot be supposed that any animal poison could act so powerfully upon the blood already drawn and coagulated ; for a poison that could operate thus instantaneously upon cold blood, could not fail of soon destroying the animal itself.

Be this as it will, the effects of serpent-poison are but too well known, though the manner of operation be not so clear. As none of this malignant tribe grow to a great size, the longest of them not exceeding nine feet, they seldom seek the combat with larger animals, or offend others till they are first offended. Did they exert their malignity in proportion to their power, they could easily drive the ranks of Nature before them ; but they seem unconscious of their own superiority, and rather fly than offer to meet the meanest opposer. Their food chiefly consists of small prey, such as birds, moles, toads, and lizards ; so that they never attack the more formidable animals, that would seldom die unrevenged. They lurk therefore in the clefts of rocks, or among stony places ; they twine round the branches of trees, or sun themselves in the long grass at the bottom. There they only seek repose and safety. If some unwary traveller invades their retreats, their first effort is to fly ; but when either pursued or accidentally trod upon, they then make a fierce and fatal resistance. For this purpose they raise themselves according to their strength upon their tail, erect the head, seize the limb that presses them, the wound is given, and the head withdrawn in a moment. It is not therefore without reason, that the Asiatics, who live in regions where serpents greatly abound, wear boots and long clothes, which very well protect their lower parts from the accidental resentment of their reptile annoyers.

In the eastern and western Indies, the numbers of noxious serpents is various ; in this country we are acquainted only with one. The viper is the only animal in Great Britain from whose bite we have any thing to fear. In the tropical climates, the rattle-snake, the whip-snake, and the cobra di capello, are the most formidable, though by no

means the most common. . From the general notoriety of these particular serpents, and the universal terror which they occasion, it would seem that few others are possessed of such powerful malignity.

Vipers are found in many parts of this island; but the dry, stony, and particularly the chalky countries, abound with them. This animal seldom grows to a greater length than two feet; though sometimes they are found above three. The ground colour of their bodies is a dirty yellow; that of the female is deeper. The back is marked the whole length with a series of rhomboid black spots, touching each other at the points; the sides with triangular ones; the belly entirely black. It is chiefly distinguished from the common black snake by the colour, which in the latter is more beautifully mottled, as well as by the head, which is thicker than the body; but particularly by the tail, which in the viper, though it ends in a point, does not run tapering to so great a length as in the other. When, therefore, other distinctions fail, the difference of the tail can be discerned at a single glance.

The viper differs from most other serpents in being much slower, as also in excluding its young completely formed, and bringing them forth alive. The kindness of Providence seems exerted, not only in diminishing the speed, but also the fertility, of this dangerous creature. They copulate in May, and are supposed to be about three months before they bring forth, and have seldom above eleven eggs at a time. These are of the size of a blackbird's egg, and chained together in the womb like a string of beads. Each egg contains from one to four young ones; so that the whole of a brood may amount to about twenty or thirty. They continue in the womb till they come to such perfection as to be able to burst from their shell; and they are said by their own efforts to creep from their confinement into the open air, where they continue for several days without taking any food whatsoever. "We have been often assured," says Mr. Pennant, "by intelligent people, of the truth of a fact, that the young of the viper, when terrified, will run down the throat of the parent, and seek shelter in its belly, in the same manner as the young of the opossum retire into the ventral pouch of the old one. From this," continues he, "some have imagined, that the viper is so unnatural as to devour its own young;

but this deserves no credit, as these animals live upon frogs, toads, lizards, and young birds, which they often swallow whole, though the morsel is often three times as thick as their own body."

The viper is capable of supporting very long abstinence, it being known that some have been kept in a box six months without food ; yet during the whole time they did not abate of their vivacity. They feed only a small part of the year, but never during their confinement ; for if mice, their favourite diet, should at that time be thrown into their box, though they will kill, yet they will never eat them. When at liberty, they remain torpid throughout the winter ; yet, when confined, have never been observed to take their annual repose. Their poison, however, decreases in proportion to the length of their confinement ; and it is thought that the virtues of the animal's flesh, are, by the same restraints, considerably lessened.

They are usually taken with wooden tongs, by the end of the tail, which may be done without danger ; for, while held in that position, they are unable to wind themselves up to hurt their enemy : yet, notwithstanding this precaution, the viper-catchers are frequently bit by them ; but, by the application of salad oil, the bite is effectually cured.

One William Oliver, a viper-catcher at Bath, was the first who discovered this admirable remedy. On the first of June, 1735, in the presence of a great number of persons, he suffered himself to be bit by an old black viper, (brought by one of the company,) upon the wrist and joint of the thumb of the right hand, so that drops of blood came out of the wounds : he immediately felt a violent pain, both at the top of his thumb and up his arm, even before the viper was loosened from his hand ; soon after he felt a pain, resembling that of burning, trickle up his arm ; in a few minutes his eyes began to look red and fiery, and to water much ; in less than an hour he perceived the venom seize his heart, with a pricking pain, which was attended with faintness, shortness of breath, and cold sweats ; in a few minutes after this, his belly began to swell, with great gripings, and pains in his back, which were attended with vomitings and purgings : during the violence of these symptoms, his sight was gone for several minutes, but he could hear all the while. He said, that in his former experiments

he had never deferred making use of his remedy longer than he perceived the effects of the venom reaching his heart; but this time, being willing to satisfy the company thoroughly, and trusting to the speedy effects of his remedy, which was nothing more than olive-oil, he forbore to apply any thing till he found himself exceeding ill and quite giddy. About an hour and a quarter after the first of his being bit, a chafing dish of glowing charcoal was brought in, and his naked arm was held over it, as near as he could bear, while his wife rubbed in the oil with her hand, turning his arm continually round, as if she would have roasted it over the coals: he said the poison soon abated, but the swelling did not diminish much. Most violent purgings and vomitings soon ensued; and his pulse became so low, and so often interrupted, that it was thought proper to order him a repetition of cordial potions: he said he was not sensible of any great relief from these; but that a glass or two of olive-oil drank down, seemed to give him ease. Continuing in this dangerous condition, he was put to bed, where his arm was again bathed over a pan of charcoal, and rubbed with salad oil, heated in a ladle over the charcoal, by Dr. Mortimer's direction, who was the physician that drew up the account. From this last operation he declared that he found immediate ease, as though by some charm: he soon after fell into a profound sleep, and, after about nine hours' sound rest, awaked about six the next morning, and found himself very well; but in the afternoon, on drinking some rum and strong beer, so as to be almost intoxicated, the swelling returned, with much pain and cold sweats, which abated soon, on bathing the arm, as before, and wrapping it up in brown paper soaked in the oil.

Such are the effects of the viper's bite; yet its flesh has long been celebrated as a noble medicine. A broth, made by boiling one viper in a quart of water till it comes to a pint, is the usual method in which it is given at present; and it is said to be a very powerful restorative in battered constitutions: the salt of vipers is also thought to exceed any other animal salt whatever, in giving vigour to the languid circulation, and prompting to venery.

The Rattle-snake is bred in America, and in no part of the old world. Some are as thick as a man's leg, and six

feet in length ; but the most usual size is from four to five feet long. In most particulars it resembles the viper : like that animal, having a large head and a small neck, being of a dusky colour, and furnished with fangs that inflict the most terrible wounds. It differs, however, in having a large scale, which hangs like a penthouse over each eye. The eye is also furnished with a nictitating membrane, that preserves it from dust ; and its scales are of a considerable degree of hardness. They are of an orange, tawny, and blackish colour on the back ; and of an ash-colour on the belly, inclining to lead. The male may be readily distinguished from the female, by a black velvet spot on the head, and by the head being smaller and longer. But that which, besides their superior malignity, distinguishes them from all other animals, is their rattle, an instrument lodged in their tail, by which they make such a loud rattling noise when they move, that their approach may readily be perceived, and the danger avoided. This rattle, which is placed in the tail, somewhat resembles, when taken out of the body, the curb-chain of a bridle : it is composed of several thin, hard, hollow bones, linked to each other, and rattling upon the slightest motion. It is supposed by some, that the snake acquires an additional bone every year ; and that, from hence, its age may be precisely known : however this may be, certain it is, that the young snakes, of a year or two old, have no rattles at all ; while many old ones have been killed, that had from eleven to thirteen joints each. They shake and make a noise with these rattles with prodigious quickness, when they are disturbed ; however, the peccary and the vulture are no way terrified at the sound, but hasten, at the signal, to seize the snake, as their most favourite prey.

It is very different with almost every other animal. The certain death which ensues from this terrible creature's bite, make a solitude wherever it is heard. It moves along with the most majestic rapidity ; neither seeking to offend the larger animals, nor fearing their insults. If unprovoked, it never meddles with any thing but its natural prey ; but when accidentally trod upon, or pursued to be destroyed, it then makes a dreadful and desperate defence. It erects itself upon its tail, throws back the head, and inflicts its wound in a moment ; then parts, and inflicts a second

wound: after which, we are told by some, that it remains torpid and inactive, without even attempting to escape.

The very instant the wound is inflicted, though small in itself, it appears more painful than the sting of a bee. This pain, which is so suddenly felt, far from abating, grows every moment more excruciating and dangerous: the limb swells; the venom reaches the head, which is soon of a monstrous size; the eyes are red and fiery; the heart beats quick, with frequent interruptions; the pain becomes insupportable, and some expire under it in five or six hours; but others, who are of stronger constitutions, survive the agony for a few hours longer, only to sink under a general mortification, which ensues, and corrupts the whole body.

As a gentleman in Virginia was walking in the fields for his amusement, he accidentally trod upon a rattle-snake, that had been lurking in a stony place; which, enraged by the pressure, reared up, bit his hand, and shook its rattles. The gentleman readily perceived that he was in the most dreadful danger; but unwilling to die unrevenged, he killed the snake, and carrying it home in his hand, threw it on the ground before his family, crying out, "I am killed, and there is my murderer;" In such an extremity, the speediest remedies were the best. His arm, which was beginning to swell, was tied up near the shoulder, the wound was anointed with oil, and every precaution taken to stop the infection. By the help of a very strong constitution he recovered; but not without feeling the most various and dreadful symptoms for several weeks together. His arm, below the ligature, appeared of several colours, with a writhing among the muscles, that, to his terrified imagination, appeared like the motions of the animal that had wounded him. A fever ensued; the loss of his hair, giddiness, drought, weakness, and nervous faintings; till, by slow degrees, a very strong habit overpowered the latent malignity of the poison.

Several remedies have been tried to alleviate this calamity. A decoction of the Virginian snake-root is considered as the most effectual; and at the same time the head of the animal, bruised and laid upon the part affected, is thought to assist the cure. In general, however, it is found to be fatal; and the Indians, sensible of this, take care to dip their arrows in the poison under the rattle-snake's fangs, when they desire to take a signal revenge of their enemies.

Thus much concerning this animal is agreed upon by every naturalist: there are other circumstances in its history, which are not so well ascertained. And first, its motion, which some describe as the swiftest imaginable; asserting, that its Indian name of *Ecacoalt*, which signifies the wind-serpent, implies its agility: others, on the contrary, assert that it is the slowest and the most sluggish of all serpents; and that it seldom moves from one place. In this opposition of opinions, there are others, who assert, that on even ground it moves but slowly; but then, among rocks, that it goes at a great rate. If we may argue from analogy, the opinion of those who contend for its slow motion, seems the most probable; as the viper, which it so very much resembles, is remarkable among serpents for its inactivity.

It is said also by some, that the rattle-snake has a power of charming its prey into his mouth; and this is as strongly contradicted by others. The inhabitants of Pennsylvania are said to have opportunities of observing this strange fascination every day. The snake is often seen basking at the foot of a tree, where birds and squirrels make their residence. There, coiled upon its tail, its jaws extended, and its eyes shining like fire, the rattle-snake levels its dreadful glare upon one of the little animals above. The bird, or the squirrel, whichever it may be, too plainly perceives the mischief meditating against it; and hops from branch to branch, with a timorous, plaintive sound, wishing to avoid, yet incapable of breaking through the fascination: thus it continues for some time its feeble efforts and complaints, but is still seen approaching lower and lower towards the bottom branches of the tree, until, at last, as if overcome by the potency of its fears, it jumps down from the tree directly into the throat of its frightful destroyer.

In order to ascertain the truth of this story, a mouse was put into a large iron cage, where a rattle-snake was kept, and the effects carefully observed. The mouse remained motionless at one end of the cage; while the snake, at the other continued fixed, with its eye glaring full on the little animal, and its jaws opened to their widest extent: the mouse for some time seemed eager to escape; but every effort only served to increase its terrors, and to

draw it still nearer the enemy; till, after several ineffectual attempts to break the fascination; it was seen to run into the jaws of the rattle-snake, where it was instantly killed.

To these accounts the incredulous oppose the improbability of the fact: they assert, that such a power ascribed to serpents, is only the remnant of a vulgar error, by which it was supposed that serpents could be charmed, and had also a power of charming. They aver, that animals are so far from running down the throat of a rattle-snake in captivity, that the snake will eat nothing in that state, but actually dies for want of subsistence.

A serpent, called the Whip-snake, is still more venomous than the former. This animal, which is a native of the east, is about five feet long, yet not much thicker than the thong of a coachman's whip. It is exceedingly venomous; and its bite is said to kill in about six hours. One of the Jesuit missionaries, happening to enter into an Indian pagoda, saw what he took to be a whipcord lying on the floor, and stooped to take it up; but, upon handling it, what was his surprise to find that it was animated, and no other than the whip-snake, of which he had heard such formidable accounts: fortune, however, seemed favourable to him, for he grasped it by the head, so that it had no power to bite him, and only twisted its folds up his arm. In this manner he held it, till it was killed by those who came to his assistance.

To this formidable class might be added the Asp, whose bite however is not attended with those drowsy symptoms which the ancients ascribed to it. The Jaculus of Jamaica also is one of the swiftest of the serpent kind. The Hæmorrhoids, so called from the *hæmorrhages* which its bite is said to produce; the Seps, whose wound is very venomous, and causes the part affected to corrupt in a very short time; the Coral Serpent, which is red, and whose bite is said to be fatal. But of all others, the Cobra di Capello, or Hooded Serpent, inflicts the most deadly and incurable wounds. Of this formidable creature there are five or six different kinds; but they are all equally dangerous, and their bite followed by speedy and certain death. It is from three to eight feet long, with two large fangs hanging out of the upper jaw. It has a broad neck, and a mark of dark brown

on the forehead ; which, when viewed frontwise, looks like a pair of spectacles ; but behind, like the head of a cat. The eyes are fierce, and full of fire ; the head is small, and the nose flat, though covered with very large scales, of a yellowish ash-colour ; the skin is white, and the large tumour on the neck is flat, and covered with oblong, smooth scales. The bite of this animal is said to be incurable, the patient dying in about an hour after the wound ; the whole frame being dissolved into one putrid mass of corruption.

To remedy the bite of all these animals, perhaps salad-oil would be very efficacious : however, the Indians make use of a composition, which is called, in Europe, *Petro de Cobra*, or the *Serpent-stone* ; and which applied to the wound, is said to draw out the venom. The composition of this stone, for it is an artificial substance, is kept a secret ; and perhaps its effects in extracting the venom may be imaginary : nevertheless, it is certain that it has a power of sticking to the skin, and sucking a part of the blood from the wound. This it may do somewhat in the same manner as we see a tobacco-pipe stick to the lips of a man who is smoking : yet still we are ignorant of the manner ; and the secret might probably be of some use in medicine. It were to be wished, therefore, that those who go to India would examine into this composition, and give us the result of their inquiries : but I fear that it is not to benefit mankind, that our travellers now go to India.*

* To this class of venomous serpents may also be added the Cerastes, or horned viper, a native of Arabia and Africa. This animal has a pair of curved sharp spines, pointing forwards, and placed immediately above the eyes, which gives it an unusual malignity of aspect. The size of this serpent is generally from a foot to fifteen inches in length, the colour pale yellowish brown, with spots of deeper hue. Its bite is exceedingly venomous, and it is said to spring to a considerable distance, and attack without provocation those who may happen to be near it.

“ A long dissertation (says Mr. Bruce) might be written on the incantation or power of charming serpents, so as to render them harmless. There is no doubt of its reality ; the Scriptures are full of it : all that have been in Egypt have seen as many different instances as they chose. Some have doubted that it was a trick, and that the animals so handled had been first trained, and then disarmed of their power of hurting ; and, fond of the discovery, they have rested themselves upon it. But I will not hesitate to aver, that I have seen at Cairo, a man who came from above the catacombs, where the pits of the mummy-birds are kept, who has taken a Cerastes, with his naked hands, from a number of others lying at the bottom of a tub, has put it upon his bare head, and covered it with the common red cap he wears ; then take it out, put it in his

CHAP. III.

OF SERPENTS WITHOUT VENOM.

THE class of serpents without poison may be distinguished from those that are venomous by their wanting the fang-teeth: their heads also are not so thick in proportion to their bodies; and, in general, they taper off to the tail more gradually in a point. But, notwithstanding their being destitute of venom, they do not cease to be formidable: some grow to a size by which they become the most powerful animals of the forest; and even the smallest and most harmless of this slender tribe find protection from the similitude of their form.

The fangs make the great distinction among serpents; and all this tribe are without them. Their teeth are short, numerous, and, in the smaller kinds, perfectly inoffensive: they lie in either jaw, as in frogs and fishes, their points bending backwards, the better to secure their prey. They want that artificial mechanism by which the poisonous tribe inflict such deadly wounds: they have no gland in the head for preparing venom; no conduits for conveying it to the teeth; no receptacles there; no hollow in the instrument that inflicts the wound. Their bite, when the teeth happen to be large enough to penetrate the skin (for, in general, they are too small for this purpose) is attended with no other symptoms than those of an ordinary puncture; and many of this tribe, as if sensible of their own impotence, cannot be provoked to bite, though never so rudely assaulted. They hiss, dart out their forky tongues, erect themselves on the tail, and call up all their terrors to intimidate their aggressors; but seem to consider their teeth as unnecessary instruments of defence, and never attempt to use them. Even among the largest of this kind, the teeth are never employed, in the most desperate engagements. When a hare or a bird is caught, the teeth may serve to prevent such small game from escaping; but when a buffalo or a tiger is to be encountered, it is by the strong folds of the body, by the fierce verberations of the

breast, and tied it about his neck like a necklace; after which it has been applied to a hen, and bit it, which has died in a few minutes: and, to complete the experiment, the man has taken it by the neck, and, beginning at the tail, has eat it, as one would eat a carrot or a stick of celery, without any seeming repugnance."

tail, that the enemy is destroyed: by thus twining round, and drawing the knot with convulsive energy, this enormous reptile breaks every bone in the animal's body, and then, at one morsel, devours its prey.

From hence we may distinguish the unvenomous tribe into two kinds: first, into those which are seldom found of any considerable magnitude, and that never offend animals larger or more powerful than themselves, but which find their chief protection in flight, or in the doubtfulness of their form; secondly, into such as grow to an enormous size, fear no enemy, but indiscriminately attack all other animals and devour them. Of the first kind is the Common Black Snake, the Blind Worm, the Esculapian Serpent, the Amphisbæna, and several others. Of the second, the Liboya, the Boiguacu, the Depona, and the Boiquatrara.

The Black Snake is the largest of English serpents, sometimes exceeding four feet in length. The neck is slender; the middle of the body thick; the back and sides covered with small scales; the belly with oblong, narrow, transverse plaits; the colour of the back and sides are of a dusky brown; the middle of the back marked with two rows of small black spots, running from the head to the tail; the plaits on the belly are dusky; the scales on the sides are of a bluish white; the teeth are small and serrated, lying on each of the jaws in two rows. The whole species is perfectly inoffensive; taking shelter in dunghills, and among bushes in moist places; from whence they seldom remove, unless in the midst of the day in summer; when they are called out by the heat to bask themselves in the sun. If disturbed or attacked, they move away among the brambles with great swiftness; but if too closely pursued, they hiss and threaten, and thus render themselves formidable, though incapable of offending.

The black snake preys upon frogs, insects, worms, mice, and young birds: and, considering the smallness of the neck, it is amazing how large an animal it will swallow. The black snake of Virginia, which is larger than ours, and generally grows to six feet long, takes a prey proportionable to its size; partridges, chickens, and young ducks. It is generally found in the neighbourhood of the hen-roost, and will devour the eggs even while the hen is sitting upon them: these it swallows whole; and often, after it has done the mischief, will coil itself round in the nest.

The whole of this tribe are oviparous, excluding eighty or a hundred eggs at a time, which are laid in dunghills or hot-beds; the heat of which, aided by that of the sun, brings them to maturity. During winter they lie torpid, in banks of hedges, and under old trees.

The Blind Worn is another harmless reptile, with a formidable appearance. The usual length of this species is eleven inches. The eyes are red; the head small; the neck still more slender; from that part the body grows suddenly, and continues of an equal bulk to the tail, which ends quite blunt: the colour of the back is cinerous, marked with very small lines, composed of minute black specks; the sides are of a reddish cast; the belly dusky, and marked like the back. The motion of this serpent is slow; from which, and from the smallness of the eyes, are derived its names; some calling it the Slow, and some the Blind Worm. Like all the rest of the kind in our climates, they lie torpid during winter; and are sometimes found in vast numbers, twisted together. This animal, like the former, is perfectly innocent; however, like the viper, it brings forth its young alive. Gesner tells us, that one of these being struck on the head when it was pregnant, it immediately cast forth its young.

The Amphisbæna, or the Double Headed Serpent, is remarkable for moving along with either the head, or the tail foremost; and from thence it has been thought to have two heads. This error took its rise from the thickness of the tail, which, at a distance, may be mistaken for another head. Upon a nearer view, however, the error is easily discovered, and the animal will be found formed according to the usual course of nature. It is as thick at one end as at the other; and the colour of the skin is like that of the earth, being rough, hard, and variously spotted. Some have affirmed that its bite is dangerous; but this must be a mistake, as it wants the fangs, and, consequently, the elaboratory that prepares the poison.

These animals are only formidable from their similitude to the viper tribe. In some countries, where such reptiles are common, they make the distinction so exactly, that, while they destroy serpents of one kind with great animosity, they take others into their houses, and even into their bosoms, with a kind of unaccountable affection. The Escu-

lapien Serpent of Italy is among this number. It is there suffered to crawl about the chambers; and often gets into the beds where people lie. It is a yellow serpent, of about an ell long; and though innocent, yet will bite when exasperated. They are said to be great destroyers of mice; and this may be the reason why they are taken under human protection. The Boyuna of Ceylon is equally a favourite among the natives; and they consider the meeting it as a sign of good luck. The Surinam Serpent, which some improperly call the Ammodytes, is equally harmless and desirable among the savages of that part of the world. They consider themselves as extremely happy if this animal comes into their huts. The colours of this serpent are so many and beautiful, that they surpass all description; and these, perhaps, are the chief inducements to the savages to consider its visits as so very fortunate. A still greater favourite is the Prince of Serpents, a native of Japan, that has not its equal for beauty. The scales which cover the back are reddish, finely shaded, and marbled with large spots of irregular figures mixed with black. The fore part of the head is covered with large beautiful scales; the jaws bordered with yellow; the forehead marked with a black marbled streak; and the eyes handsome and lively. But, of all others, the Gerenda of the East Indies is the most honoured and esteemed. To this animal, which is finely spotted with various colours, the natives of Calicut pay divine honours; and while their deity lies coiled up, which is its usual posture, the people fall upon their faces before it with stupid adoration. The African Gerenda is larger, and worshipped in the same manner by the inhabitants of the coasts of Mosambique. The skin is not so finely spotted as the former; but it is variegated all over the body with very fine white, ash-coloured, and black spots. The brilliancy of colouring in these reptiles would only serve with us to increase our disgust; but in those countries where they are common, distinctions are made; and even in this horrid class there are some eyes that can discover beauty.

But in the larger tribe of serpents, there is nothing but danger to be apprehended. This formidable class, though without venom, have something frightful in their colour, as well as their size and form. They want that vivid hue

with which the savages are so much pleased in the lesser kinds ; they are all found of a dusky colour, with large teeth, which are more formidable than dangerous.

The first of this class is the great Liboya of Java and Brazil, which Legaut affirms, he has seen fifty feet long. Nor is he singular in this report, as many of the missionaries affirm the same ; and we have the concurrent testimony of historians as a further proof. The largest animal of this kind which has been brought into Europe, is but thirty-six feet long ; and it is probable that much greater have been seen and destroyed before they were thought worth sending so far to satisfy European curiosity. The most usual length, however, of the Liboya, is about twenty feet, and the thickness in proportion. The teeth are small in proportion to the body ; nor are they used but when it seizes the smallest prey. It lies in wait for wild animals near the paths, and when it throws itself upon them, it wraps them round so closely as to break all the bones ; then moistening the whole body over with its slaver, it makes it fit for deglutition, and swallows it whole.

The Boiguacu is supposed to be the next in magnitude, and has often been seen to swallow a goat whole. It is thickest in the middle of the body, and grows shorter and smaller towards the head and the tail : on the middle of the back there is a chain of small black spots running along the length of it ; and on each side there are large, round, black spots, at some distance from each other, which are white in the centre : between these, near the belly, there are two rows of lesser black spots, which run parallel to the back. It has a double row of sharp teeth in each jaw, of a white colour, and shining like mother-of-pearl. The head is broad ; and over the eyes it is raised into two prominences : near the extremity of the tail there are two claws, resembling those of birds.

These serpents lie hid in thickets, from whence they sally out unawares, and, raising themselves upright on their tails, will attack both men and beasts. They make a loud hissing noise when exasperated ; and sometimes winding up trees, will dart down upon travellers, and twist themselves so closely round their bodies, as to dispatch them in a very few minutes. Condamine, however, affirms that their bite is not dangerous ; for though the teeth are so large as to inspire

the beholder with terror, yet the wound they make is attended with no dangerous consequences whatever. Dellon affirms, that they generally haunt desert places ; and though they are sometimes seen near great towns, or on the banks of rivers, yet it is generally after some great inundation : he never saw any but what were dead ; and they appeared to him like the trunk of a great tree lying on the ground.

To this class of large serpents we may refer the Depona, a native of Mexico, with a very large head and great jaws. The mouth is armed with cutting crooked teeth, among which there are two longer than the rest, placed in the fore part of the upper jaw, but very different from the fangs of the viper. All round the mouth there is a broad scaly border ; and the eyes are so large, that they give it a very terrible aspect. The forehead is covered with very large scales ; on which are placed others that are smaller, curiously ranged : those on the back are grayish, and along it runs a double chain, whose ends are joined in the manner of a buckler. Each side of the belly is marbled with large square spots, of a chesnut colour, in the middle of which is a spot which is round and yellow. They avoid the sight of man ; and, consequently, never do much harm.

Such are the most noted animals of the serpent tribe ; but to recount all, would be a vain, as well as useless, endeavour. In those countries where they abound, their discriminations, are so numerous, and their colours so various, that every thicket seems to produce a new animal. The same serpent is often found to bring forth animals of eight or ten different colours : and the naturalist who attempts to arrange them by that mark, will find that he has made distinctions which are entirely disowned by Nature : however, a very considerable number might be added to enlarge the catalogue ; but having supplied a general history, the mind turns away from a subject, where every object presents something formidable or loathsome to the imagination. Indeed, the whole tribe resemble each other so nearly, that the history of one may almost serve for every other. They are all terrible to the imagination, all frightful to behold in their fury, and have long been considered as a race of animals, between whom and man there is a natural antipathy.

PART VI.

OF INSECTS, ETC.

BOOK I.

INSECTS OF THE FIRST ORDER.

CHAP. I.

OF INSECTS IN GENERAL.

HAVING gone through the upper ranks of Nature we descend to that of insects ; a subject almost inexhaustible, from the number of its tribes, and the variety of their appearance. Those who have professedly written on this subject, seem to consider it as one of the greatest that can occupy the human mind, as the most pleasing in animated nature.—“ After an attentive examination,” says Swammerdam, “ of the nature and anatomy of the smallest as well as the largest animals, I cannot help allowing the least an equal, or, perhaps, a superior degree of dignity. If, while we dissect with care the larger animals, we are filled with wonder at the elegant disposition of their parts ; to what a height is our astonishment raised, when we discover all these parts arranged in the least in the same regular manner ! Notwithstanding the smallness of ants, nothing hinders our preferring them to the largest animals ; if we consider either their unwearied diligence, their wonderful strength, or their inimitable propensity to labour. Their amazing love to their young is still more unparalleled among the larger classes. They not only daily carry them to such places as may afford them food ; but if, by accident, they are killed, and even cut into pieces, they, with the utmost tenderness, will carry them away, piecemeal, in their arms. Who can show such an

example among the larger animals, which are dignified with the title of perfect? Who can find an instance in any other creature, that can come in competition with this?"

Such is the language of a man, who, by long study, became enamoured of his subject; but to those who judge less partially, it will be found that the insect tribe, for every reason, deserve but the last and lowest rank in animated nature. As in mechanics the most complicated machines are required to perform the nicest operations, so in anatomy the noblest animals are most variously and wonderfully made.—Of all living beings, man offers the most wonderful variety in his internal conformation; quadrupeds come next, and other animals follow in proportion to their powers or their excellencies. Insects seem, of all others, the most imperfectly formed: from their minuteness, the dissecting knife can go but a short way in the investigation; but one thing argues an evident imperfection, which is, that many of them can live a long time, though deprived of those organs which are necessary to life in the higher ranks of nature. Many of them are furnished with lungs and a heart, like nobler animals; yet the caterpillar continues to live, though its heart and lungs, which is often the case, are entirely eaten away.

But it is not from their conformation alone, that insects are inferior to other animals, but from their instincts also. It is true that the ant and the bee, present us with very striking instances of assiduity; but how far are theirs beneath the mark of sagacity exhibited in the hound or the stag! A bee, taken from the swarm, is totally helpless and inactive, incapable of giving the smallest variation to its instincts: it has but one single method of operating, and, if put from that, it can turn to no other. In the pursuits of the hound, there is something like a choice; in the labours of the bee, the whole appears like necessity or compulsion.

If insects be considered as bearing a relation to man, and as assisting him in the pleasures or necessities of life, they will, even in this respect, sink in the comparison with the larger tribes of nature. It is true that the bee, the silkworm, the cochineal fly, and the cantharides, render him signal services; but how many others of this class are either noxious or totally unserviceable to him? Even in a country

like ours, where all the noxious animals have been reduced by repeated assiduity, the insect tribes still maintain their ground, and are but too often unwelcome intruders upon the fruits of human industry. But in more uncultivated regions, their annoyance and devastations are terrible. What an uncomfortable life must the natives lead in Lapland, and some parts of America, where, if a candle be lighted, the insects swarm in such abundance, as instantly to extinguish it with their numbers; where the inhabitants are obliged to smear their bodies and faces with tar, or some other composition, to protect them from the puncture of their minute enemies; where, though millions are destroyed, famished millions are still seen to succeed, and to make the torture endless!

Their amazing number is also an argument of their imperfection. It is a rule that obtains through all nature, that the nobler animals are slowly produced, and that Nature acts with a kind of dignified economy; but the meaner births are lavished in profusion, and thousands are brought forth merely to supply the necessities of the more favourite objects of creation. Of all other productions in nature, insects are the most numerous. Vegetables that cover the surface of the earth, bear no proportion to their multitudes; and though, at first sight, herbs of the field seem to be the parts of organized nature produced in the greatest abundance; yet, upon minuter inspection, we shall find every plant supporting a number of scarcely perceptible creatures, that fill up the various stages of youth, vigour, and age, in the compass of a few days' existence.

All other animals are capable of some degree of education; their instincts may be suppressed or altered: the dog may be taught to fetch and carry; the bird to whistle a tune; and the serpent to dance: but the insect has but one invariable method of operating; no arts can turn it from its instincts; and, indeed, its life is too short for instruction, as a single season often terminates its existence.

For these reasons, the insect tribe are deservedly placed in the lowest rank of animated nature; and, in general, they seem more allied to the vegetables on which they feed, than to the nobler classes above them. Many of

them are attached to one vegetable, often to a single leaf; there they increase with the flourishing plant, and die as it decays; a few days fill up the measure of their contemptible lives; while the ends for which they were produced, or the pleasures they enjoyed, to us at least, are utterly unknown.

Yet while I am thus fixing the rank of a certain class of animals, it seems necessary to define the nature of those animals which are thus degraded. Definitions in general produce little knowledge; but here, where the shades of nature are so intimately blended, some discrimination is necessary to prevent confusion. The smallness of the animal, for instance, does not constitute an insect; for then, many of the lizard kind, which are not above two inches long, would come under this denomination; and if the smaller lizards, why not the crocodile? which would be a terrible insect indeed! In the same manner, smallness, with a slow creeping motion, does not constitute an insect; for, though snails might be called insects, with the same propriety the whole tribe of sea shellfish would then have equal pretensions; and a very troublesome innovation would be brought into our language, which is already formed. Excluding such animals, therefore, from the insect tribe, we may define insects to be *little animals without red blood, bones, or cartilages, furnished with a trunk, or else a mouth, opening lengthwise, with eyes which they are incapable of covering, and with lungs which have their openings on the sides.* This definition comprehends the whole class of insects, whether with or without wings; whether in their caterpillar or butterfly state; whether produced in the ordinary method of generation between male and female, or from an animal that is itself both male and female, or from the same animal cut into several parts, and each part producing a perfect animal.

From hence it appears, that in this class of animals there are numerous distinctions, and that a general description will by no means serve for all. Almost every species has its own distinct history; and exhibits manners, appetites, and modes of propagation, peculiarly its own. In the larger ranks of existence, two animals that nearly resemble each other in form, will be found to have a similar history; but

here insects almost entirely alike will be often found perfectly dissimilar, as well in their manner of bringing forth and subsisting, as in the changes which they undergo during their short lives. Thus, as this class is prolific beyond computation, so are its varieties multiplied beyond the power of description. The attempt to enumerate all the species of a fly or a moth would be very fruitless; but to give a history of all would be utterly impracticable: so various are the appetites, the manners, and the lives, of this humble class of beings, that every species requires its distinct history. An exact plan, therefore, of Nature's operations in this minute set of creatures, is not to be expected; and yet such a general picture may be given, as is sufficient to show the protection which Providence affords its smallest as well as its largest productions, and to display that admirable circulation in nature by which one set of living beings find subsistence from the destruction of another; and by which life is continued without a pause in every part of the creation.

Upon casting a slight view over the whole insect tribe, just when they are supposed to rouse from their state of annual torpidity, when they begin to feel the genial influence of spring, and again exhibit new life in every part of nature; their numbers and their varieties seem to exceed all powers of calculation, and they are indeed too great for description. When we look closer, however, we shall find some striking similitudes, either in their propagation, their manners, or their form, that gives us a hint for grouping several of them into one description, and thus enabling us to shorten the labour of a separate history for every species. Swammerdam, Reaumur, and Linnæus, have each attempted to abridge the task of description, by throwing a number of similar animals into distinct classes, and thus making one general history stand for all. I will avail myself of their labours; and uniting their general distinctions, throw the whole class of insects into four separate distributions, giving under each the history of every species that seems to me considerable enough to deserve our notice. Thus our labour will be shortened; and the very rank in which an insect is placed, will, in some measure, exhibit a considerable part of its history.

In our cursory inspection of the insect tribe, the first

animals that offer themselves are those which want wings, that appear crawling about on every plant, and on every spot of earth we regard with any degree of attention. Of these, some never obtain wings at any period of their existence: but are destined to creep on the vegetable, or the spot of earth, where they are stationed for their whole lives. On the contrary, others are only candidates for a more happy situation; and only wait their growing wings, when they may be said to arrive at their state of full perfection.

Those that never have wings, but creep about till they die, may be considered as constituting the **FIRST CLASS** of insects. All these, the flea and the woodlouse only excepted, are produced from an egg; and when once they break the shell, they never suffer any further change of form, but continue to grow larger till they die. Thus the louse or the spider are produced from an egg, never suffering any alteration when once they are excluded; but, like the chicken or the duck, remaining invariably the same, from their birth to their dissolution.*

The **SECOND ORDER** of insects consists of such as have wings; but which, when produced from the egg, have those wings cased up in such a manner as not to appear. This casing up of the wings, however, does not prevent the animal's running, leaping, and moving with its natural celerity; but when the case bursts, and the wings have a power of expanding, all the animal's motions become more extensive, and the animal arrives at full perfection. Thus the grasshopper, the dragon-fly, and the ear-wig, have their wings at first bound down; but when the skin, that like a pair of stays, kept them confined, bursts, they are then expanded, and the animal pursues the purposes for which it was produced.

* Almost all insects, except spiders and a few others without wings, undergo a metamorphosis or change, at three distinct periods of their existence. From the egg is produced the grub or caterpillar, covered with a soft skin, and furnished with feet: in this state they are extremely voracious. After having grown to their full size, they are again changed to a chrysalis, either inclosed in a web which they spin about themselves, or in a hard shell-like case: in this state they lie torpid and inactive, attached to some place of security. After remaining their proper period in this situation, the bonds that surround them are broken asunder, and they come out transformed into the perfect insect.

The **THIRD ORDER** of insects is of the moth and butterfly kind. These all have four wings, each covered with a mealy substance of various colours, which when handled comes off upon the fingers; and, if examined by the microscope, will appear like scales, with which the wing is nicely embroidered all over. These insects also are produced in a manner peculiar to themselves. They are first hatched from an egg, from whence proceeds a caterpillar that eats, and often casts its skin; the caterpillar having divested itself for the last time, assumes a new covering, which is called a chrysalis, or the cone in the silkworm, in which it continues hidden till it come forth a perfect moth, or butterfly.

The **FOURTH ORDER** is of those winged insects which come from a worm instead of a caterpillar, and yet go through changes similar to those which moths and butterflies are seen to undergo. They are first excluded from the egg as a worm, and then become a chrysalis; in some, their wings and legs are seen; in others, the animal is quite detached from the cone in which it is concealed; but all at length break their prison and come out perfect winged animals; some furnished with two wings, and some with four. The wings of all these differ from those of the butterfly and moth kind, by not having the mealy scales which are ever found on the wings of the former. In this class we may place the numerous tribes of gnats, beetles, bees, and flies.

To these I will add, as a **FIFTH ORDER**, a numerous tribe lately discovered, to which naturalists have given the name of Zoophytes. These do not go through the ordinary forms of generation, but may be propagated by dissection. Some of these, though cut into a hundred parts, still retain life in each, and are endued with such a vivacious principle, that every part will in a short time become a perfect animal. They seem a set of creatures placed between animals and vegetables, and make the shade that connects animated and insensible nature. To this class belong the polypus, the earthworm, and all the varieties of the sea-nettle.

Having thus given a general distribution of insects, I will proceed to describe each class in the order I have mentioned them; beginning with insects without wings,

as they more nearly resemble the higher ranks of nature, as well in their habits as their conformation.

CHAP. II.

OF INSECTS WITHOUT WINGS.

EVERY moment's observation furnishes us with instances of insects without wings ; but the difficulty is to distinguish those which are condemned continually to lead reptile lives, from such as only wait the happy moment of transmutation. For this, nothing but a long and intimate acquaintance will suffice ; but, in general, all animal resembling the flea, the louse, the spider, the bug, the wood-louse, the water-louse, and the scorpion, never acquire wings, but are produced from the egg in that form which they never change afterwards.

If we consider this class as distinct from others, we shall find them in general longer lived than the rest, and often continuing their term beyond one season, which is the ordinary period of an insect's existence. They seem also less subject to the influence of the weather ; and often endure the rigours of winter without being numbed into torpidity. The whole race of moths, butterflies, bees, and flies, are rendered lifeless by the return of cold weather ; but we need not to be told, that the louse, the flea, and many of these wingless creatures, that seem formed to tease mankind, continue their painful depredations the whole year round.

They come to perfection in the egg, as was said before ; and it sometimes happens, that when the animal is interrupted in performing the offices of exclusion, the young ones burst the shell within the parent's body, and are thus brought forth alive. This not unfrequently happens with the wood-louse, and others of the kind, which are sometimes seen producing eggs, and sometimes young ones perfectly formed.

Though these creatures are perfect from the beginning, yet they are often, during their existence, seen to change their skin : this is a faculty which they possess in common with many of the higher ranks of animals, and which

answers the same purposes. However tender their skins may seem to our feel, yet, if compared to the animal's strength and size, they will be found to resemble a coat of mail, or, to talk more closely, the shell of a lobster. By this skin these animals are defended from accidental injuries, and particularly from the attacks of each other. Within this they continue to grow, till their bodies become so large as to be imprisoned in their own covering, and then the shell bursts, but is quickly replaced by a new one.

Lastly, these animals are endued with a degree of strength, for their size, that at first might exceed credibility. Had man an equal degree of strength, bulk for bulk, with a louse or flea, the history of Samson would be no longer miraculous. A flea will draw a chain a hundred times heavier than itself; and to compensate for this force, will eat ten times its own size of provision in a single day.

CHAP. III.

OF THE SPIDER, AND ITS VARIETIES.

THE animal that deserves our first notice in this principal order of insects is the Spider, whose manners are, of all others, the most subtle, and whose instincts are most various. Formed for a life of rapacity, and incapable of living upon any other than insect food, all its habits are calculated to deceive and surprise: it spreads toils to entangle its prey; it is endued with patience to expect its coming; and is possessed of arms and strength to destroy it when fallen into the snare.

In this country, where all the insect tribes are kept under by human assiduity, the spiders are but small and harmless. We are acquainted with few but the house-spider, which weaves its web in neglected rooms; the garden-spider, that spreads its toils from tree to tree, and rests in the centre; the wandering spider, that has no abode like the rest; and the field-spider, that is sometimes seen mounting, web and all, into the clouds. These are the chief of our native spiders; which, though reputed venomous, are entirely inoffensive. But they form a much more terrible

tribe in Africa and America. In those regions, where all the insect species acquire their greatest growth, where the butterfly is seen to expand a wing as broad as our sparrow, and the ant to build a habitation as tall as a man, it is not to be wondered at that the spiders are seen bearing a proportionable magnitude. In fact, the bottom of the Martinico spider's body is as large as a hen's egg, and covered all over with hair. Its web is strong, and its bite dangerous. It is happy for us, however, that we are placed at a distance from these formidable creatures, and that we can examine their history without feeling their resentment.

Every spider has two divisions in its body. The fore part containing the head and breast, is separated from the hinder part or belly by a very slender thread, through which, however, there is a communication from one part to the other. The fore part is covered with a hard-shell, as well as the legs, which adhere to the breast. The hinder part is clothed with a supple skin, beset all over with hair. They have several eyes all round the head, brilliant and acute; these are sometimes eight in number, sometimes but six; two behind, two before, and the rest on each side. Like all other insects, their eyes are immoveable, and they want eye-lids; but this organ is fortified with a transparent horny substance, which at once secures and assists their vision. As the animal procures its subsistence by the most watchful attention, so large a number of eyes was necessary to give it the earliest information of the capture of its prey. They have two pincers on the fore part of the head, rough, with strong points, toothed like a saw, and terminating in claws, like those of a cat. A little below the point of the claw there is a small hole, through which the animal emits a poison, which, though harmless to us, is sufficiently capable of instantly destroying its prey. This is the most powerful weapon they have against their enemies; they can open or extend these pincers as occasion may require; and when they are undisturbed, they suffer them to lie one upon the other, never opening them but when there is a necessity for their exertion. They have all eight legs, jointed like those of lobsters, and similar also in another respect; for if a leg be torn away, or a joint cut off, a new one will quickly grow in its place, and

the animal will find itself fitted for combat as before. At the end of each leg there are three crooked moveable claws, namely, a small one, placed higher up, like a cock's spur, by the assistance of which it adheres to the threads of its web. There are two others larger, which meet together like a lobster's claw, by which they can catch hold of the smallest depressions, walking up or down the very polished surfaces, on which they can find inequalities that are imperceptible to our grosser sight. But when they walk upon such bodies as are perfectly smooth, as looking-glass or polished marble, they squeeze a little sponge, which grows near the extremity of their claws, and thus diffusing a glutinous substance, adhere to the surface until they make a second step. Besides the eight legs just mentioned, these animals have two others, which may more properly be called arms, as they do not serve to assist motion, but are used in holding and managing their prey.

The spider, though thus formidably equipped, would seldom prove successful in the capture, were it not equally furnished with other instruments to assist its depredations. As it lives wholly upon flies, and is without wings to pursue them, it is obvious they must for ever escape so impotent an adversary; but the spider is a most experienced hunter, and spreads its nets to catch those animals it is unable to pursue. The spider's web is generally laid in those places where flies are most apt to come and shelter; in the corners of rooms, round the edges of windows, and in the open air among the branches of trees. There the little animal remains for days, nay, weeks together, in patient expectation, seldom changing its situation though never so unsuccessful.

For the purposes of making this web, nature has supplied this animal with a large quantity of glutinous matter within its body, and five dugs or teats for spinning it into thread. This substance is contained in a little bag, and at first sight it resembles soft glue; but when examined more accurately, it will be found twisted into coils of an agate colour, and upon breaking it, the contents may be easily drawn out into threads, from the tenacity of the substance, not from those threads being already formed. Those who have seen the machine by which wire is spun, will have an

idea of the manner in which this animal forms the threads of its little net, the orifices of the five teats above mentioned, through which the thread is drawn, contracting or dilating at pleasure. The threads which we see, and appear so fine, are, notwithstanding, composed of five joined together, and these are many times doubled when the web is in formation.

When the house-spider purposes to begin a web, it first makes choice of some commodious spot, where there is an appearance of plunder and security. The animal then distils one little drop of its glutinous liquor, which is very tenacious, and then creeping up the wall, and joining its thread as it proceeds, it darts itself in a very surprising manner, as I have often seen, to the opposite place, where the other end of the web is to be fastened. The first thread thus formed, drawn tight, and fixed at each end, the spider then runs upon it backward and forward, still assiduously employed in doubling and strengthening it, as upon its force depends the strength and stability of the whole. The scaffolding thus completed, the spider makes a number of threads parallel to the first, in the same manner, and then crosses them with others; the clammy substance of which they are formed, serving to bind them, when newly made, to each other. The insect, after this operation, doubles and trebles the thread that borders its web, by opening all its teats at once, and secures the edges, so as to prevent the wind from blowing the work away. The edges being thus fortified, the retreat is next to be attended to; and this is formed like a funnel at the bottom of the web, where the little creature lies concealed. To this are two passages, or outlets; one above and the other below, very artfully contrived, to give the animal an opportunity of making excursions at proper seasons, of prying into every corner, and cleaning those parts which are observed to be clogged or encumbered. Still attentive to its web, the spider, from time to time, cleans away the dust that gathers round it, which might otherwise clog and incommode it: for this purpose, it gives the whole a shake with its paws; still, however, proportioning the blow so as not to endanger the fabric. It often happens also, that from the main web there are several threads extended at some distance on

every side ; these are, in some measure, the outworks of the fortification, which, whenever touched from without, the spider prepares for attack, or self-defence. If the insect impinging be a fly, it springs forward with great agility ; if, on the contrary, it be the assault of an enemy stronger than itself, it keeps within its fortress, and never ventures out till the danger be over. Another advantage which the spider reaps from this contrivance of a cell or retreat behind the web, is, that it serves for a place where the creature can feast upon its game with all safety, and conceal the fragments of those carcases which it has picked, without exposing to public view the least trace of barbarity, that might create a suspicion in any insects that their enemy was near.

It often happens, however, that the wind, or the rustling of the branches, or the approach of some large animal, destroys, in a minute, the labours of an age. In this case, the spider is obliged to remain a patient spectator of the universal ruin ; and when the danger is passed away, it sets about repairing the calamity. For this purpose, it is furnished with a large store of the glutinous substance of which the web is made ; and with this, it either makes a new web, or patches up the old one. In general, however, the animal is much fonder of mending than making, as it is furnished originally with but a certain quantity of glutinous matter, which, when exhausted, nothing can renew. The time seldom fails to come when their reservoirs are entirely dried up, and the poor animal is left to all the chances of irretrievable necessity. An old spider is thus frequently reduced to the greatest extremity ; its web is destroyed, and it wants the materials to make a new one. But as these animals have been long accustomed to a life of shifting, it hunts about to find out the web of another spider, younger and weaker than itself, with whom it ventures a battle. The invader generally succeeds ; the young one is driven out to make a new web, and the old one remains in quiet possession. If, however, the spider is unable to dispossess any other of its web, it then endeavours, for a while, to subsist upon accidental depredation ; but, in two or three months, it inevitably dies of hunger.

The garden-spider seems to work in a different manner.

The method with this insect is, to spin a great quantity of thread, which, floating in the air in various directions, happens, from its glutinous quality, at last to stick to some object near it, a lofty plant, or the branch of a tree. The spider only wants to have one end of the line fast, in order to secure and tighten the other. It accordingly draws the line when thus fixed, and then, by passing and repassing upon it, strengthens the thread in such a manner as to answer all its intentions. The first cord being thus stretched, the spider walks along a part of it, and there fastens another, and dropping from thence, fastens the thread to some solid body below, then climbs up again and begins a third, which it fastens by the same contrivance. When three threads are thus fixed, it forms a square, or something that very nearly resembles one, and in this the animal is generally seen to reside. It often happens, however, when the young spider begins spinning, that its web becomes too buoyant; and not only the thread floats in the air, but even the little spinster. In this manner we have often seen the threads of spiders floating in the air; and, what is still more surprising, the young spiders themselves attached to their own web. The reason is obvious; for as even gold itself may be so finely drawn out as to float in the air, so the finer thread of a spider is so buoyant as not only to swim in the air, but also to lift the spider itself; which, like the tail of a kite, rises with its own manufacture.

The spider's web being thus completed, and fixed in a proper place, its next care is to seize and secure whatever insect happens to be caught in the toil. For this purpose, it remains for weeks, and even months, upon the watch, without ever catching a single fly; for the spider, like most other insects, is surprisingly patient of hunger. It sometimes happens that too strong a fly strikes itself against the web, and thus, instead of being caught, tears the net to pieces. In general, however, the butterfly or the hornet, when they touch the web, fly off again, and the spider seems no way disposed to interrupt their retreat. The large blue-bottle-fly, the ichneumon-fly, and the common meat-fly, seems to be its favourite game. When one of these strikes into the toils, the spider is instantly seen alert and watchful at the mouth of its hole, careful to observe whether

the fly be completely immeshed: if that be the case, the spider walks leisurely forward, seizes its prey, and instantly kills it by instilling a venomous juice into the wound it makes. If, however, the fly be not entirely immeshed, the spider patiently waits, without appearing until its prey has fatigued itself by its struggles to obtain its liberty; for if the ravager should appear in all its terrors while the prey is but half involved, a desperate effort might give it force enough to get free. If the spider has fasted for a long time, it then drags the fly immediately into its hole, and devours it; but if there has been plenty of game, and the animal be no way pressed by hunger, it then gives the fly two or three turns in its web, so as completely immesh it, and there leaves it impotently to struggle until the little tyrant comes to its appetite. Why the spider should at one time kill its prey, and at another suffer it to struggle in the toils for several hours together, I am not able to say; perhaps it only likes its prey newly killed, and therefore delays to put the captive to death until it is to be eaten.

It has been the opinion of some philosophers, that the spider was in itself both male and female; but Lister has been able to distinguish the sexes, and to perceive that the males are much less in size than the females. But this is not the chief peculiarity; for, different from all other animals, except the fish called the *Ray*, it has its instruments of generation placed in the fore-arms, which have been already described. When these animals copulate, they, for some time, seize each other with their legs and arms, then appear the instruments of generation in the male, as if bursting out from the points of its fore-feet and are inserted into the receptacle beneath the body of the female.

The female generally lays from nine hundred to a thousand eggs in a season; they are of a bluish colour, speckled with black, and separated from each other by a glutinous substance, not unlike frog-spawn water. These eggs are large or small in proportion to the size of the animal that produces them. In some they are as large as a grain of mustard-seed; in others they are scarcely visible. The female never begins to lay till she be two years old at the least, and her first brood is never so numerous as when she has come to her greatest maturity.

When the number of eggs which the spider has brought forth have remained for an hour or two to dry after exclusion, the little animal then prepares to make them a bag, where they are to be hatched until they leave the shell. For this purpose she spins a web four or five times stronger than that made for catching flies; and, besides, lines it within-side by a down, which she plucks from her own breast. This bag, when completed, is as thick as paper, is smooth within-side, but rougher without. Within this they deposit their eggs; and it is almost incredible to relate the concern and industry which they bestow in the preservation of it. They stick it, by means of their glutinous fluid, to the end of their body; so that the animal, when thus loaded, appears as if she had one body placed behind another. If this bag be separated from her by any accident, she employs all her assiduity to stick it again in its former situation, and seldom abandons her treasure but with her life. When the young ones are excluded from their shells, within the bag, they remain for some time in their confinement, until the female, instinctively knowing their maturity, bites open their prison, and sets them free. But her parental care does not terminate with their exclusion; she receives them upon her back for some time, until they have strength to provide for themselves, when they leave her never to return, and each begins a separate manufactory of its own. The young ones begin to spin when they can scarcely be discerned; and prepare for a life of plunder before they have strength to overcome. Indeed, Nature seems to have formed them in every respect for a life of hostility. No other insect is possessed of such various powers of assault and defence; and they are able to destroy animals ten times bigger than themselves. Even after a severe defeat they quickly recover of their wounds; and as for their legs, they consider the loss of them as but a small misfortune, as they grow again very speedily to their former magnitude.

Thus there is no insect to which they are not an enemy; but what is more barbarous still, spiders are the enemies of each other. Mr. Reaumur, who was fond of making experiments upon insects, tried to turn the labours of the spider to human advantage, and actually made a pair of gloves from their webs. For this purpose, he collected a

large number of those insects together: he took care to have them constantly supplied with flies, and the ends of young feathers, fresh picked from chickens and pigeons, which, being full of blood, are a diet that spiders are particularly fond of. But, notwithstanding all his care, he was soon convinced that it was impracticable to rear them, since they were of, such a malignant nature, that they could never be brought to live in society; but, instead of their usual food, chose to devour each other. Indeed, were it practicable to reconcile them to each other, it would require too much attendance to rear up a sufficient number to make the project any way useful. Their thread is four, if not five, times finer than that of the silk-worm; so that, upon the smallest calculation, there must have been sixty thousand spiders to make a single pound of silk. That which Reaumur made use of was only the web in which they deposited their eggs, which is five times stronger than their ordinary manufacture.

Of this animal, there are several kinds, slightly differing from each other, either in habits or conformation. The Water-spider is the most remarkable of the number. This insect resembles the common spider in its appearance, except that its hinder part is made rather in the shape of a nine-pin than a ball. They differ in being able to live as well by land as water; and in being capable of spinning as well in one element as the other. Their appearance under water is very remarkable; for though they inhabit the bottom, yet they are never touched by the element in which they reside, but are inclosed in a bubble of air that, like a box, surrounds them on every side. This bubble has the bright appearance, at the bottom, of quicksilver; and within this they perform their several functions of eating, spinning, and sleeping, without its ever bursting, or in the least disturbing their operations: sometimes, the bubble is seen divided into three distinct apartments; and, in the spring, the male enters one of those to impregnate the female in the manner mentioned above, while the bubble in which he was contained unites with the other, like two drops of water when approached to each other. They spin their webs as well in the water as upon land; and it is most probable that they make their food of the small insects of either element.

The Tarantula is also of this species, and deserves particular notice, not for any remarkable properties that really attend it, but for the numerous falsehoods which have been propagated concerning it. What may be said with truth concerning it is, that it is the largest of the spider kind known in Europe, and is a native of Apulia, in Italy. Its body is three quarters of an inch long, and about as thick as one's little finger; the colour is generally an olive brown, variegated with one that is more dusky; it has eight legs and eight eyes, like the rest, and nippers, which are sharp and serrated: between these and the fore legs, there are two little horns, or feelers, which it is observed to move very briskly when it approaches its prey. It is covered all over the body with a soft down, and propagates, as other spiders, by laying eggs. In the summer months, particularly in the dog-days, the tarantula, creeping among the corn, bites the mowers and passengers; but in winter it lurks in holes, and is seldom seen.

Thus far is true; but now the fable begins: for though the bite is attended with no dangerous symptoms, and will easily cure of itself, wonderful stories are reported concerning its virulence. The part which is bitten, as we are told, is soon after discoloured with a livid, black, or yellowish circle, attended with an inflammation. At first the pain is scarcely felt; but a few hours after, come on a violent sickness, difficulty of breathing, fainting, and sometimes trembling. The person bit, after this does nothing but laugh, dance, and skip about, putting himself into the most extravagant postures, and sometimes also is seized with a most frightful melancholy. At the return of the season in which he was bit, his madness begins again; and the patient always talks of the same things. Sometimes he fancies himself a shepherd, sometimes a king; appearing entirely out of his senses. These troublesome symptoms sometimes return, for several years successively, and, at last, terminate in death. But so dreadful a disorder has, it seems, not been left without a remedy; which is no other than a well-played fiddle. For this purpose the medical musician plays a particular tune, famous for the cure, which he begins slow, and increases in quickness as he sees the patient affected. The patient no sooner hears the music, but he begins to dance; and

continues so doing til he is all over in a sweat, which forces out the venom that appeared so dangerous. This dancing sometimes continues for three or four hours, before the patient is weary, and before the sweating is copious enough to cure the disorder. Such are the symptoms related of the tarantula poison ; symptoms which some of the best and gravest physicians have credited, and attempted to account for. But the truth is, that the whole is an imposition of the peasants upon travellers who happen to pass through that part of the country, and who procure a trifle for suffering themselves to be bitten by the tarantula. Whenever they find a traveller willing to try the experiment, they readily offer themselves, and are sure to counterfeit the whole train of symptoms which music is supposed to remove. A friend of mine, who passed through that part of the country, had a trusty servant bitten without ever administering the musical cure: the only symptoms were a slight inflammation, which was readily removed, and no other consequences ever attended the bite.—It is thus that falsehoods prevail for a century or two ; and mankind at last begin to wonder how it was possible to keep up the delusion so long.*

CHAP. IV.

OF THE FLEA.

THE history of those animals with which we are the best acquainted, are the first objects of our chiefest curiosity.—There are few but are well informed of the agility and the blood-thirsty disposition of the Flea ; of the caution with which it comes to the attack ; and the readiness with which it avoids the pursuit. This insect, which is not only the enemy of mankind, but of the dog, cat, and several other animals, is found in every part of the world, but bites with greater severity in some countries than in

* The Gossamer Spider is a very minute animal, found during the harvest in fields and gardens in vast swarms. Its body is so light that it floats in the air to a great height, and deposits a thick coat of cob-web called gossamer, and which in the autumn is seen to cover whole fields to a great extent. This film is frequently observed in a fine clear morning, glittering with drops of dew, and exhibiting one of the most pleasing sights in rural scenery.

others. Its numbers in Italy and France are much greater than in England; and yet its bite is much more troublesome here, than I have found it in any other place. It would seem that its force increased with the coldness of the climate; and, though less prolific, that it becomes more predaceous.

If the flea be examined with a microscope, it will be observed to have a small head, large eyes, and a roundish body. It has two feelers, or horns, which are short, and composed of four joints; and between these lies its trunk, which it buries in the skin, and through which it sucks the blood in large quantities. The body appears to be all over curiously adorned with a suit of polished sable armour, neatly jointed, and beset with multitudes of sharp pins, almost like the quills of a porcupine. It has six legs, the joints of which are so adapted, that it can, as it were, fold them up one within another; and when it leaps, they all spring out at once, whereby its whole strength is exerted, and the body raised above two hundred times its own diameter.

The young fleas are at first a sort of nits or eggs, which are round and smooth; and from these proceed white worms, of a shining pearl colour: in a fortnight's time they come to a tolerable size, and are very lively and active; but if they are touched at this time, they roll themselves up in a ball: soon after this they begin to creep like silk-worms that have no legs; and then they seek a place to lie hid in, where they spin a silken thread from their mouth, and with this they inclose themselves in a small round bag or case, as white within as writing-paper, but dirty without: in this they continue for a fortnight longer: after which they burst from their confinement perfectly formed, and armed with powers to disturb the peace of an emperor.

[The Chigoe is the only other species of flea. This creature is well known to the inhabitants of many parts of America. Its size is so small as to be hardly perceptible, but its bite is attended with much more serious consequences than the irritating inhabitant of our own country. It pierces through the skin and flesh without its being felt, generally on the legs and toes, and gradually insinuating its head and body, completes its lodgment, and makes a nest of a thin white pellicle. In this nest it gradually dilates itself, and grows larger, feeding upon the disturbed humours of the body; and at last deposits its eggs, and form a colony. If

CHAP. V.

OF THE LOUSE, AND ITS VARIETIES.

THE antipathies of mankind are various; some considering the toad, some the serpent, some the spider, and some the beetle, with a strong degree of detestation: but while all wonder at the strangeness of each other's aversions, they all seem to unite in their dislike to the Louse, and regard it as their natural and most nauseous enemy. Indeed, it seems the enemy of man in the most odious degree, for wherever wretchedness, disease, or hunger, seize upon him, the louse seldom fails to add itself to the tribe, and to increase in proportion to the number of his calamities.

In examining the human louse with the microscope, its external deformity first strikes us with disgust; the shape of the forepart of the head is somewhat oblong; that of the hind part somewhat round: the skin is hard, and being stretched, transparent, with here and there several bristly hairs; in the forepart is a proboscis or sucker, which is seldom visible: on each side of the head are antennæ, or horns, each divided into five joints, covered with bristly hair; and several white vessels are seen through these horns: behind these are the eyes, which seem to want those divisions observable in other insects, and appear encompassed with some few hairs: the neck is very short, and the breast is divided into three parts; on each side of which are placed six legs, consisting of six joints, covered also with bristly hairs: the ends of the legs are armed with two smaller and larger ruddy claws, serving these insects as a finger and thumb, by which they catch hold of such objects as they approach: the end of the body terminates in a cloven tail, while the sides are all over hairy; the whole resembling clear parchment, and, when roughly pressed, cracking with a noise.

When we take a closer view, its white veins and other these are suffered to remain, till the tumor burst, and the nits are hatched, an ulcer is formed, very difficult to heal, and which often eats down to the bone, causing a painful caries, often attended with the loss of the limb, and sometimes with the loss of life itself.]

internal parts appear, as likewise a most wonderful motion in its intestines, from the transparency of its external covering. When the louse feeds, the blood is seen to rush, like a torrent, into the stomach; and its greediness is so great, that the excrements contained in the intestines are ejected at the same time, to make room for this new supply.

The louse has neither beak, teeth, nor any kind of mouth, as Dr. Hooke described it; for the entrance into the gullet is absolutely closed. In the place of all these, it has a proboscis or trunk; or, as it may be otherwise called, a pointed hollow sucker, with which it pierces the skin, and sucks the human blood, taking that for food only. The stomach is lodged partly in the breast and back; but the greatest portion of it is in the abdomen. When swollen with blood it appears of a dark brown colour, which is visible through the skin; and is either a faint red, or a full or bright brown, as the contents of the stomach are more or less changed. When it is empty, it is colourless; but when filled, it is plainly discernible, and its motion seems very extraordinary. It then appears working with very strong agitations, and somewhat resembles an animal within an animal. Superficial observers are apt to take this for the pulsation of the heart: but if the animal be observed when it is sucking, it will then be found that the food takes a direct passage from the trunk to the stomach, where the remainder of the old aliment will be seen mixing with the new, and agitated up and down on every side.

If this animal be kept from food two or three days, and then placed upon the back of the hand, or any soft part of the body, it will immediately seek for food; which it will the more readily find, if the hand be rubbed till it grows red. The animal then turns its head, which lies between the two fore-legs, to the skin, and diligently searches for some pore: when found, it fixes the trunk therein; and soon the microscope discovers the blood ascending through the head, in a very rapid, and even frightful, stream. The louse has at that time sufficient appetite to feed in any posture; it is then seen sucking with its head downward, and its tail elevated. If, during this operation, the skin be drawn tight, the trunk is

bound fast, and the animal is incapable of disengaging itself; but it more frequently suffers from its gluttony, since it gorges to such a degree, that it is crushed to pieces by the slightest impression.

Whether lice are distinguished by the parts of generation into males and females is not yet discovered: Swammerdam is inclined to think that they are hermaphrodites, having found an ovary in all those he examined; and he dissected not less than forty-two. In one of these animals were found ten large eggs; and forty-four smaller, that were not yet come to their full perfection.

There is scarcely any animal that multiplies so fast as this unwelcome intruder. It has been pleasantly said, that a louse becomes a grandfather in the space of twenty-four hours: this fact cannot be ascertained; but nothing is more true than that the moment the nit, which is no other than the egg of the louse, gets rid of its superfluous moisture, and throws off its shell, it then begins to breed in its turn. Nothing so much prevents the increase of this nauseous animal as cold and want of humidity; the nits must be laid in a place that is warm, and moderately moist, to produce any thing. This is the reason that many nits laid on the hairs in the night-time, are destroyed by the cold of the succeeding day; and so stick for several months, till they at last come to lose even their external form.

The louse is found upon every part of the human body; but particularly in the heads of children. Those found upon the miners in Sweden, are said, by Linnæus, to be very large; and he is of opinion that the head and the body-louse differ in no respect from each other. The pthiriasis, or lousy disease, though very little known at present, was frequent enough among the ancients: Herod, Antiochus Epiphanes, Alcman the poet, Pherecydes, Cassander, Callisthenes, and Sylla, all died of this disorder. The use of mercury, which was unknown among the ancients, may probably have banished it from among the moderns; for certain it is, that these animals seldom attack any in our climate, but such as from sloth or famine invite their company.

Such is the history of the human louse, which, from its connection with mankind, deserves first notice: but it

would be endless to describe the various tribes that go under this name, and swarm upon every part of Nature. There is scarce an animal, and scarce even a vegetable, that does not suffer under its own peculiar louse. The sheep, the horse, the hog, and the elephant, are all teased, by them; the whale, the shark, the salmon, and the lobster, are not without their company; while every hot-house, and every garden, is infested with some peculiarly destructive. Linnæus tells us, that he once found a vegetable-louse upon some plants newly arrived from America; and willing to trace the little animal through its various stages, he brought it with him from London to Leyden, where he carefully preserved it during the winter, until it bred in the spring; but the louse it seems did not treat him with all the gratitude he expected; for it became the parent of so numerous a progeny, that it soon overrun all the physic-garden of that beautiful city; and leaves, to this day, many a gardener to curse the Swede's too indulgent curiosity.

The animal which some have called the Leaf-Louse, is of the size of a flea, and of a bright green, or bluish green colour; the body is nearly oval, and is largest and most convex on the hinder part; the breast is very small, and the head is blunt and green; the eyes may be seen very plainly, being prominent on the fore part of the head, and of a shining black colour; near these there is a black line on each side; and the legs are very slender.

These animals are usually found upon the leaves of the orache, and other plants; and the weaker the leaves and buds are, these insects swarm upon them in greater abundance. Some plants are covered over with them; though they are not the cause of the plant's weakness, but the sign: however, by wounding and sucking the leaf, they increase the disease. They generally assume their colour from the plant on which they reside. Those that feed upon pot-herbs and plum-trees, are of an ash colour; only they are greenish when they are young: those that belong to the alder and cherry-tree, are black; as also those upon beans, and some other plants: those on the leaves of apple and rose trees, are white: but as they leap, like grasshoppers, some place them in the number of the flea kind. The most uncommon colour is reddish;

and lice of this sort may be found on the leaves of tansey ; and their juice, when rubbed in the hands, tinges them with no disagreeable red. All these live upon their respective plants ; and are often engendered within the very substance of the leaf.

All these bring forth their young alive ; and the foetus, when it is ready to be brought forth, entirely fills the belly of the female ; its fore parts being excluded first, and then the hinder. The young one does not begin to move till the horns or feelers appear out of the body of the old one ; and by the motion of these it first shews signs of life, moving them in every direction, and bending all their joints. When the horns and head are excluded, the two fore-feet follow, which they move with equal agility ; after this follow the middle feet, and then the hinder : still, however, the young one continues sticking to its parent, supported only at one extremity, and hanging, as it were, in air, until its small and soft members become hardened and fitted for self-support. The parent then gets rid of its burden, by moving from the place where she was sitting ; and, forcing the young one to stand upon its legs, leaves it to shift for itself.*

As the animal has not far to go, its provision lying beneath it, during the summer it continues to eat and creep about with great agility. But as it is vivaparous, and must necessarily lurk somewhere in winter, where its body may be defended from the cold, it endeavours to secure a retreat near the trees or plants that serve to nourish it in the beginning of spring. They never hide themselves in the

* The late Mr. Curtis left behind him a curious paper of observations on these curious insects, and which has been published in the sixth volume of the Linnæan Transactions. The aphid, or plant-louse, is found on almost every vegetable, the young shoots of which it is found to perforate with its proboscis. All the blights in plants are occasioned by punctures of this little animal ; and the failure in the crops of beans, hops, &c. may be solely attributed to it. Their habitation is generally on the underside of the leaf, which is commonly seen covered with a thick white down, with which the young are enveloped. When a tree or plant is infested with these animals, it is also covered with the honey-dew, which is found to be the excrement of these creatures, and which is always seen on the upper side of the leaf, directly under them : and if a piece of white paper be placed under a leaf covered with plant-lice, it will soon be sprinkled over with small drops of a transparent glutinous fluid, tasting like sugar.

earth, like many other insects, because they have no part of their bodies fitted to remove the earth; nor can they creep into every chink, as their legs are too long: besides, their bodies are so tender, that the least rough particle of the earth would hurt them. They, therefore, get into the deep chinks of the bark, and into the cavities of the stronger stalks, from whence they sally out upon the branches and leaves when the warmth of the sun begins to be felt. Neither the cold in the autumnal season, nor the lesser degree of heat in the spring, ever hurts them; they seldom, therefore, seek for hiding-places before the fall of the leaf, and are alert enough to take the earliest advantage of the returning spring.

Like many other insects, they cast their skins four several times: and, what is very remarkable, the males have four wings, but the females never have any. They all have long legs, not only to enable them to creep over the long hairs of plants or leaves, but also to travel from one tree to another when they happen to stand at a distance. Their trunk or snout lies under their breast; and this they thrust into the pores of the plant to suck out the juice, for they do not gnaw them, like the caterpillar; but so hurt them by sucking, that the leaves become spotted, and as it were overrun with scabs; for which reason their edges always turn up towards the middle.

It has been said, that these insects are often carried away and devoured by ants; but this Frysch, from whom this description is taken, could never observe. The ants, indeed, are fond of those trees where there is a great number of these insects; but then it is only to suck the juice which flows from the leaves that have been just wounded. This more particularly happens in the heat of summer, when other moisture is wanting: however, he never found them hurting or carrying away any of these insects while alive; nor, indeed, were they able, for the leaf-louse is more than a match for the ant at single combat. Whenever they perceive the ant approaching behind them, they kick back with their hinder-feet, and thus drive off the invader, as a horse would a lion.

The three principal and constant enemies to these insects are, first, the fire-fly, which lays its eggs where these insects are in greatest number, which producing a worm, seizes

and devours all the leaf-lice that come near it: another enemy is the worm of a peculiar kind of beetle, which destroys them in great numbers: but the most formidable of all enemies, is the ichneumon fly, that seizes upon one of the largest females, and laying its egg upon her, this is hatched into a worm, which soon devours and destroys the animal from whose body it sprung.

CHAP. VI.

OF THE BUG, AND ITS VARIETIES.

THE Bug is another of those nauseous insects that intrude upon the retreats of mankind; and that often banish that sleep, which even sorrow and anxiety permitted to approach. This, to many men, is of all other insects the most troublesome and obnoxious. The night is usually the season when the wretched have rest from their labour; but this seems the only season when the bug issues from its retreats, to make its depredations. By day it lurks, like a robber, in the most secret parts of the bed; takes the advantage of every chink and cranny, to make a secure lodgment; and contrives its habitation with so much art, that scarcely any industry can discover its retreat. It seems to avoid the light with great cunning: and even if candles be kept burning, this formidable insect will not issue from its hiding place. But when darkness promises security, it then issues from every corner of the bed, drops from the tester, crawls from behind the arras, and travels with great assiduity to the unhappy patient, who vainly wishes for rest and refreshment. It is generally vain to destroy one only, as there are hundreds more to revenge their companion's fate; so that the person who thus is subject to be bitten, remains the whole night like a centinel upon duty, rather watching the approach of fresh invaders, than inviting the pleasing approaches of sleep.

Nor are these insects less disagreeable from their nauseous stench, than their unceasing appetites. When they begin to crawl, the whole bed is infected with the smell: but if they are accidentally killed, then it is insupportable.

These are a part of the inconveniences that result from the persecution of these odious insects; but, happily for

Great Britain, they multiply less in these islands than in any part of the continent. In France and Italy the beds, particularly in their inns, swarm with them; and every piece of furniture seems to afford them a retreat. They grow larger also with them than with us, and bite with more cruel appetite.

This animal, if examined minutely appears to consist of three principal parts; the head, the corselet, and the belly. It has two brown eyes, that are very small, and a little prominent, besides two feelers, with three joints; underneath these there is a crooked trunk, which is its instrument of torture, and which, when in motion, lies close upon the breast. The breast is a kind of ring, in which are placed the two first pair of legs. The belly consists of nine rings; under which are placed two pair of legs more, making six in all. Each leg has three joints, which form the thigh, the leg, and the foot, which is armed with a crooked claw, like a hook. The body is smooth, except a few short hairs, that may be seen by the microscope, about the vent, and on the two last rings. Its motion is slow and unwieldy; yet its sight is so exquisite, that the instant it perceives the light, it generally makes good its retreat; and they are seldom caught, though the bed swarms with them.

If we examine this insect internally, we shall find the great artery, which in all insects performs the functions of the heart: we shall find the apertures of the lungs on the right side and the left, through which the animal breathes; we shall find a stomach and intestines, which, as in other animals, run from the mouth to the anus. If the insect has been long kept fasting, there will be a mucus found in its body, like the white of an egg; but if crushed after a full meal, the human blood which it has sucked in, will appear a little darkened, by having passed through the insect's body.

The male and female of these animals are plainly distinguishable from each other; and the parts of generation are obvious enough. They are often found coupling tail to tail; and in this state are very easily destroyed. The female has an ovary filled with eggs, joined together like a bunch of grapes; each egg being an oblong, almost cylindrical, inclining to white, and pretty transparent. In

about two days after impregnation by the male, she deposits her eggs to the number of about a hundred and fifty, in some convenient place where they are likely to receive no disturbance. There they continue for some months; during which time, neither cold nor heat, neither moisture nor fumigation, can in the least retard their exclusion; but they come forth active, and ready for mischief. It is this hardness in the shell that seems to continue the breed; as the old ones die every winter, or are easily destroyed by any fumigation that is used for that purpose. But the eggs seem incapable of destruction; even those men who make a livelihood by killing these nauseous insects, though they can answer for the parent, can never be sure of the egg. For this reason they usually pay those houses to which they are called, a second or a third visit, and at last exterminate them by perseverance.

The manner of destroying them seems rather the effects of assiduity than antidote; for the men called in upon this occasion, take every part of the furniture asunder, brush every part of it with great assiduity, anoint it with a liquid which I take to be a solution of corrosive sublimate, and having performed this operation twice or thrice, the vermin are most usually destroyed.

Cleanliness, therefore, seems to be the best antidote to remove these nauseous insects; and wherever that is wanting, their increase seems but a just punishment. Indeed, they are sometimes found in such numbers among old furniture, and neglected chambers, exposed to the south, that, wanting other sustenance, they devour each other. They are also enemies to other vermin, and destroy fleas very effectually; so that we seldom have the double persecution of different vermin in the same bed. Of the bug kind Linnaeus reckons up forty.

CHAP. VII.

OF THE WOOD-LOUSE, AND ITS VARIETIES.

THE common wood-louse is seldom above half an inch long, and a quarter of an inch broad. The colour is of a livid black, especially when found about dunghills, and on the ground; but those that are to be met with under tiles,

and in drier places, are the colour of the hair of an ass.— It has fourteen feet, seven on each side ; and they have only one joint each, which is scarcely perceivable. It has two short feelers, and the body is of an oval shape. When it is touched it rolls itself up into a sort of ball ; and the sides near the feet are dentated like a saw. It is often found among rotten timber, and on decayed trees : in winter it lies hid in the crevices of walls and all sorts of buildings. The male is easy distinguishable from the female, being less and more slender. The eggs they lay are white and shining, like seed-pearls, and are very numerous : however, more properly speaking, although when excluded, the young have all the appearance of an egg, yet they are alive, and, without throwing off any shell, stir and move about with great vivacity ; so that this animal may properly be said to be vivaparus. The little worms at first seem scarcely able to stir ; but they soon feed, and become very brisk. These animals are of great use in medicine, being impregnated with a saline quality, which is diuretic and stimulating. Of this insect, Linnæus makes three species.

CHAP. VIII.


OF THE MONOCULUS ; OR, ARBORESCENT WATER-FLEA.

THIS animal, which is of the size of a flea, appears to the sight, unassisted by the microscope, to have but one eye ; for the eyes, by reason of the smallness of the head, seem to be joined to each other ; they are situated in the trunk of this insect, and the beak is likewise very small and sharp-pointed. The structure of the eye is seen, by the microscope, to be reticulated, or made like a net ; and the trunk of this insect, by which it feeds, is not only small and sharp, but also transparent. The insects are of a blood-red colour ; and sometimes are seen in such multitudes on the surface of standing waters, as to make them appear all over red, whence many fanciful people have thought the water to be turned into blood.

Swammerdam tells us of a celebrated professor at Ley-

den, who was at first astonished by an appearance of this kind. Being once intent upon his studies, he heard a noise, of which, as it increased by degrees, he was desirous to know the cause. The maid-servant attending to his summons, appeared quite petrified with fear, and told him with a tremulous voice, that all the waters of Leyden were turned into blood! Upon this he went directly, in a small bark, to the place where the water was thus changed, and put some of the bloody water into a glass; but upon viewing it with attention, he observed, that it abounded with infinite numbers of these little red insects, which tinged the whole body of the fluid with that seemingly formidable colour. Thus his sudden fright was changed into lasting admiration.

Of all parts of this animal, its branching arms, and the motion it makes with them in the water, deserve our greatest attention. By these the little creature can move in a straight line; waving its arms, as a bird does its wings in the air, sometimes upward, sometimes downward, sometimes to the right, sometimes to the left, yet still continuing to proceed in a right line. By striking the water with its arms, it can ascend with great velocity; and by striking in a contrary direction, it dives with equal ease. As these motions are very rapid, the little animal appears to jump in the water, its head always tending to the surface, and its tail stretched downward. This insect is produced from an egg, which, when excluded, is carried on the back of the female, and soon is seen floating in the water round her. Its appearance at first is that of a very small whitish insect, endued with a very nimble motion. Except in colour, it suffers no change, only continuing to grow larger and redder as it grows old. They sometimes remain several days on the surface of the water; and sometimes are seen at the bottom only; but they are never at rest. They change their skin, like most other insects; and the cast skin resembles the insect itself so exactly, that one might mistake the mask for the animal.



CHAP. IX.

OF THE SCORPION, AND ITS VARIETIES.

THERE is scarcely an insect without wings that is not obnoxious to man : the smallest have the power of annoying him, either by biting or stinging him ; and though each is in itself contemptible, they become formidable from their numbers. But of all this class there is none so terrible as the Scorpion, whose shape is hideous, whose size among the insect tribe is enormous, and whose sting is generally fatal. Happy for England, the scorpion is entirely a stranger among us ! In several parts of the continent of Europe, it is but too well known, though it seldom grows above four inches long : but in the warm tropical climates it is seen a foot in length, and in every respect as large as a lobster.

The scorpion is one of the largest of the insect tribe, and not less terrible from its size than its malignity. It resembles a lobster somewhat in shape, but is infinitely more hideous. There have been enumerated nine different kinds of this dangerous insect, chiefly distinguished by their colour ; there being scorpions yellow, brown, and ash-coloured ; others, that are the colour of rusty iron, green, pale, yellow, black, claret-colour, white, and gray.

There are four principal parts distinguishable in this animal ; the head, the breast, the belly, and the tail. The scorpion's head seems, as it were, jointed to the breast ; in the middle of which are seen two eyes ; and a little more forward, two eyes more, placed in the fore part of the head : these eyes are so small, that they are scarcely perceivable ; and it is probable the animal has but little occasion for seeing. The mouth is furnished with two jaws ; the undermost is divided into two, and the parts notched into each other, which serves the animal as teeth, and with which it breaks its food, and thrusts it into its mouth : these the scorpion can at pleasure pull back into its mouth, so that no part of them can be seen. On each side of the head are two arms, each composed of four joints ; the last of which is large, with strong muscles, and made in the

manner of a lobster's claw. Below the breast are eight articulated legs, each divided into six joints ; the two hindmost of which are each provided with two crooked claws, and here and there covered with hair. The belly is divided into seven little rings ; from the lowest of which is continued a tail composed of six joints, which are bristly, and formed like little globes, the last being armed with a crooked sting. This is that fatal instrument which renders this insect so formidable : it is long, pointed, hard, and hollow ; it is pierced near the base by two small holes, through which, when the animal stings, it ejects a drop of poison, which is white, caustic, and fatal. The reservoir in which this poison is kept, is in a small bladder near the tail, into which the venom is distilled by a peculiar apparatus. If this bladder be gently pressed, the venom will be seen issuing out through the two holes above-mentioned ; so that it appears, that when the animal stings, the bladder is pressed, and the venom issues through the two apertures into the wound.

There are few animals more formidable, or more truly mischievous, than the scorpion. As it takes refuge in a small place, and is generally found sheltering in houses, so it cannot be otherwise than that it must frequently sting those among whom it resides. In some of the towns of Italy, and in France, in the province of Languedoc, it is one of the greatest pests that torment mankind : but its malignity in Europe is trifling, when compared to what the natives of Africa and the East are known to experience. In Batavia, where they grow twelve inches long, there is no removing any piece of furniture, without the utmost danger of being stung by them. Bosman assures us, that, along the Gold Coast, they are often found larger than a lobster ; and that their sting is inevitably fatal. In Europe, however, they are by no mean so large, so venomous, or so plentiful. The general size of this animal does not exceed two or three inches ; and its sting is very seldom found to be fatal. Maupertuis, who made several experiments on the scorpion of Languedoc, found it by no means so invariably dangerous as had till then been represented. He provoked one of them to sting a dog, in three places of the belly, where the animal was without hair : in about an hour after, the poor animal seemed greatly swollen,

and became very sick ; he then cast up whatever he had in his bowels ; and for about three hours continued vomiting a whitish liquid. The belly was always greatly swollen, when the animal began to vomit ; but this operation always seemed to abate the swelling ; which alternately swelled, and was thus emptied, for three hours successively. The poor animal, after this, fell into convulsions, bit the ground, dragged himself along upon his fore-feet, and at last died, five hours after being bitten. He was not partially swollen round the place which was bitten, as is usual after the sting of a wasp or a bee ; but his whole body was inflated, and there only appeared a red spot on the places where he had been stung.

Some days after, however, the same experiment was tried upon another dog, and even with more aggravated cruelty ; yet the dog seemed no way affected by the wounds, but howling a little when he received them, continued alert and well after them ; and soon after was set at liberty, without shewing the smallest symptoms of pain. So far was this poor creature from being terrified at the experiment, that he left his master's house to come to that of the philosopher, where he had received more plentiful entertainment. The same experiment was tried by fresh scorpions, upon seven other dogs, and upon three hens ; but not the smallest deadly symptom was seen to ensue. From hence, it appears, that many circumstances, which are utterly unknown, must contribute to give efficacy to the scorpion's venom. Whether its food, long fasting, the season, the nature of the vessels it wounds, or its state of maturity, contribute to, or retard its malignity, is yet to be ascertained by succeeding experiments. In the trials made by our philosopher, he employed scorpions of both sexes, newly caught, and seemingly vigorous and active. The success of this experiment may serve to shew, that many of those boasted antidotes which are given for the cure of the scorpion's sting, owe their success rather to accident than their own efficacy. They only happened to cure, when their sting was no way dangerous ; but in cases of actual malignity, they might probably be utterly unserviceable.

The scorpion of the tropical climates being much larger than the former, is probably much more venomous. Hel-

bigius, however, who resided for many years in the East, assures us, that he was often stung by the scorpion, and never received any material injury from the wound: a painful tumor generally ensued; but he always cured it, by rubbing the part with a piece of iron or stone, as he had seen the Indians practise before him, until the flesh became insensible. Seba, Moore, and Bosman, however, give a very different account of the scorpion's malignity; and assert, that, unless speedily relieved, the wound becomes fatal.

It is certain that no animal in the creation seems endued with such an irascible nature. I have often seen them taken and put into a place of security, exerting all their rage against the sides of the glass vessel that contained them. I have seen them attempt to sting a stick, when put near them; and attack a mouse or a frog, while those animals were far from offering any injury. Maupertuis put three scorpions and a mouse into the same vessel together, and they soon stung the little animal in different places. The mouse, thus assaulted, stood for some time upon the defensive, and, at last, killed them all, one after another. He tried this experiment, in order to see whether the mouse, after it had killed, would eat the scorpions; but the little quadruped seemed entirely satisfied with the victory, and even survived the severity of the wounds it had received. Wolkamer tried the courage of the scorpion against the large spider, and enclosed several of both kinds in glass vessels for that purpose.* The success of this combat was very remarkable. The spider, at first, used all its efforts to inmesh the scorpion in its web, which it immediately began spinning; but the scorpion rescued itself from the danger, by stinging its adversary to death: it soon after cut off, with its claws, all the legs of the spider, and then sucked all the internal parts at its leisure. If the scorpion's skin had not been so hard, Wolkamer is of opinion that the spider would have obtained the victory; for he had often seen one of these spiders destroy a toad.

The fierce spirit of this animal is equally dangerous to its own species; for scorpions are the cruellest enemies to each other. Maupertuis put about a hundred of them together in the same glass; and they scarcely came into contact, when they began to exert all their rage in mutual destruction:

* Ephemerides, Dec. 2, 1687, Observ. 224.

there was nothing to be seen but one universal carnage, without any distinction of age or sex ; so that, in a few days, there remained only fourteen, which had killed and devoured all the rest.

But their unnatural malignity is still more apparent in their cruelty to their offspring. He enclosed a female scorpion, big with young, in a glass vessel, and she was seen to devour them as fast as they were excluded ; there was but one only of the number that escaped the general destruction, by taking refuge on the back of its parent ; and this, soon after, revenged the cause of its brethren, by killing the old one in its turn.

Such is the terrible and unrelenting nature of this insect, which neither the bonds of society nor of nature can reclaim : it is even asserted that, when driven to an extremity, the scorpion will often destroy itself. The following experiment was ineffectually tried by Maupertius : but I am so well assured of it by many eye-witnesses, who have seen it both in Italy and America, that I have no doubt remaining of its veracity. A scorpion, newly caught, is placed in the midst of a circle of burning charcoal, and thus an egress prevented on every side : the scorpion, as I am assured, runs for about a minute round the circle, in hopes of escaping ; but finding that impossible, it stings itself on the back of the head, and in this manner the undaunted suicide instantly expires.

It is happy for mankind that these animals are thus destructive to each other ; since otherwise they would multiply in so great a degree as to render some countries uninhabitable. The male and female of this insect are very easily distinguishable ; the male being smaller, and less hairy. The female brings forth her young alive, and perfect in their kind.* Rhedi having brought a quantity of scorpions, selected the females, which, by their size and roughness, were easily distinguishable from the rest, and putting them in separate glass vessels, he kept them for some days without food. In about five days one of them brought forth thirty-eight young ones, well-shaped, and

[* All the Scorpion tribe are produced from eggs, of which one female lays a considerable number. After their escape from the egg, they undergo no farther transformation, except occasionally casting their skin like the spider.]

of a milk-white colour, which changed every day more and more into a dark rusty hue. Another female, in a different vessel, brought forth twenty-seven of the same colour: and the day following the young ones seemed all fixed to the back and belly of the female. For near a fortnight all these continued alive and well; but afterwards some of them died daily; until, in about a month, they all died except two.

Were it worth the trouble, these animals might be kept living as long as curiosity should think proper. Their chief food is worms and insects; and, upon a proper supply of these, their lives might be lengthened to their natural extent. How long that may be, we are not told; but if we may argue from analogy, it cannot be less than seven or eight years; and perhaps, in the larger kind, double that duration. As they have somewhat the form of the lobster, so they resemble that animal in casting their shell, or, more properly speaking, their skin; since it is softer by far than the covering of the lobster, and set with hairs, which grow from it in great abundance, particularly at the joinings. The young lie in the womb of the parent, each covered up in its own membrane, to the number of forty or fifty, and united to each other by an oblong thread, so as to exhibit altogether the form of a chaplet.

Such is the manner in which the common scorpion produces its young: but there is a scorpion of America, produced from the egg, in the manner of the spider. The eggs are no larger than pin-points; and they are deposited in a web which they spin from their bodies, and carry about with them till they are hatched. As soon as the young ones are excluded from the shell, they get upon the back of the parent, who turns her tail over them, and defends them with her sting. It seems probable, therefore, that captivity produces that unnatural disposition in the scorpion, which induces it to destroy its young; since, at liberty, it is found to protect them with such unceasing assiduity.

CHAP. X.

OF THE SCOLOPENDRA AND GALLY-WORM.

OF these hideous and angry insects we know little except the figure and the noxious qualities. Though, with us, there are insects somewhat resembling them in form, we are placed at a happy distance from such as are really formidable. With us they seldom grow above an inch long; in the tropical climates they are often found above a quarter of a yard.

The Scolopendra is otherwise called the Centipes, from the number of its feet; and it is very common in many parts of the world, especially between the tropics. Those of the East Indies, where they grow to the largest size, are about six inches long, of a ruddy colour, and as thick as a man's finger: they consist of many joints; and from each joint is a leg on each side: they are covered with hair, and seem to have no eyes; but there are two feelers on the head, which they make use of to find out the way they are to pass: the head is very round, with two small sharp teeth, with which they inflict wounds that are very painful and dangerous. A sailor, that was bit by one on board a ship, felt an excessive pain, and his life was supposed to be in danger: however, he recovered by the application of three roasted onions to the part, and was soon quite well. Of this animal there are different kinds; some living, like worms, in holes in the earth: others under stones, and among rotten wood; so that nothing is more dangerous than removing those substances in the places where they breed.

The Galley-worm differs from the scolopendra, in having double the number of feet; there being two on each side to every joint of the body. Some of them are smooth, and others hairy; some are yellow, some black, and some brown. They are found among decayed trees, between the wood and the bark; as also among stones that are covered with moss. They all, when touched, contract themselves, rolling themselves up like a ball. Whatever may be their qualities in the tropical parts of the world, in Europe they are perfectly harmless; having been often handled and irritated without any vindictive consequences.

All these, as well as the scorpion, are supposed to be produced perfect from the parent, or the egg; and to undergo no changes after their first exclusion. They are seen of all sizes; and this is a sufficient inducement to suppose, that they preserve their first appearance through the whole of their existence, It is, probable, however, that, like most of this class, they often change their skins: but of this we have no certain information.

CHAP. XI.

OF THE LEECH.

THE last of this wingless tribe that I shall mention is the Leech, which, like all the former, undergoes no varieties of transformation; but when once excluded from the body of the parent, preserves its first figure to the end. I place the history of the Leech among the first class of insects; while I have degraded the Earth-worm, the *Tænia*, and the *Polypus*, into the class of zoophytes, or that imperfect tribe which serves to make the shade between animal and vegetable nature. Not but that the earth-worm, or the polypus, have their motions, their appetites, and their vital principles, as complete as the leech, and, to a cursory view, appear every way as complete animals. But there is one circumstance that lays the line between them; that exalts the one, and degrades the other. The earth-worm and the polypus may be cut into pieces, and each piece will produce a new and perfect animal: the leech cannot suffer this dissection, but dies when cut in two; an evident instance that it is possessed of a more perfect organization than those animals which it otherwise very much resembles.

The leech, from its uses in medicine, is one of those insects that man has taken care to provide; but, of a great variety, one kind only is considered as serviceable. The horse-leech, which is the largest of all, and grows to four inches in length, with a glossy black surface, is of no use, as it will not stick to the skin; the snail-leech is but an inch in length; and though it will stick, is not large enough to extract a sufficient quantity of blood from the patient;

the broad-tailed leech, which grows to an inch and a half in length, with the back raised into a sort of ridge, will stick but on very few occasions : it is the large brown leech, with a whitish belly, that is made use of in medicine, and whose history best merits our curiosity.

The leech has the general figure of a worm, and is about as long as one's middle finger. Its skin is composed of rings, by means of which it is possessed of its agility, and swims in water. It contracts itself, when out of water, in such a manner, that, when touched, it is not above an inch long. It has a small head, and a black skin, edged with a yellow line on each side, with some yellowish spots on the back. The belly also, which is of a reddish colour, is marked with whitish yellow spots. But the most remarkable part of this animal is the mouth, which is composed of two lips, that take whatever form the insect finds convenient. When at rest, the opening is usually triangular, and within it are placed three very sharp teeth, capable of piercing not only the human skin, but also that of a horse, or an ox. Still deeper in the head is discovered the tongue, which is composed of a strong fleshy substance, and which serves to assist the animal in sucking, when it has inflicted its triple wound; for no sooner is this voracious creature applied to the skin, than it buries its teeth therein, then closes its lips round the wounds which it has made; and thus, in the manner of a cupping-glass, extracts the blood as it flows to the different orifices.

In examining this animal's form farther towards the tail, it is seen to have a gullet and an intestinal canal, into which the blood flows in great abundance. On each side of this are seen, running along, several little bladders, which, when the animal is empty, seem to be filled with nothing but water; but when it is gorging blood, they seem to communicate with the intestines, and receive a large portion of the blood which flows into the body. If these bladders should be considered as so many stomachs, then every leech will be found to have twenty-four. But what is most extraordinary of all in this animal's formation is, that, though it takes so large a quantity of food, it has no anus or passage to eject it from the body when it has been digested. On the contrary, the blood which the leech has thus sucked remains, for several months, clotted within its body, blackened a little by the

change, but no way putrified, and very little altered in its texture or consistence. In what manner it passes through the animal's body, or how it contributes to its nourishment, is not easily accounted for. The water in which they are kept is very little discoloured by their continuance; they cannot be supposed to return the blood by the same passage through which it was taken in: it only remains, therefore, that it goes off through the pores of the body, and that these are sufficiently large to permit its exclusion.

But it is not in this instance alone that the leech differs from all other insects. It was remarked in a former chapter, that the whole insect tribe had the opening into their lungs placed in their sides, and that they breathed through those apertures as other animals through the mouth. A drop of oil poured on the sides of a wasp, a bee, or a worm, would quickly suffocate them, by stopping up the passages through which they breathe: but it is otherwise with the leech, for this animal may be immersed in oil without injury; nay, it will live therein; and the only damage it will sustain is, that, when taken out, it will be seen to cast a fine pellucid skin exactly of the shape of the animal, after which, it is as alert and vigorous as before. It appears from hence that the leech breathes through the mouth; and, in fact, it has a motion that seems to resemble the act of respiration in more perfect animals: but concerning all this we are very much in the dark.

This animal seems to differ from all others in several respects: the rest of the reptile tribe are brought forth from eggs; the leech is viviparous, and produces its young, one after the other, to the number of forty or fifty at a birth. It is probable that, like the snail, each insect contains the two sexes, and that it impregnates, and is impregnated, in the same manner. The young ones are chiefly found in the month of July, in shallow running waters, and particularly when they are tepified by the rays of the sun. The large ones are chiefly sought after; and being put into a glass vessel filled with water, they remain for months, nay, for years, without taking any other subsistence. But they never breed in this confinement; and, consequently, what regards that part of their history still remains obscure.

In this part of the world they seldom grow to above four inches; but in America and the East they are found from

six to seven. Their pools there abound with them in such numbers, that it would be dangerous bathing, if for no other consideration. Our sailors and soldiers, who, the last war, were obliged to walk in those countries through marshy grounds, talk with terror of the number of leeches that infested them on their march. Even, in some parts of Europe, they increase so as to become formidable. Sedelius, a German physician, relates that a girl of nine years old, who was keeping sheep near the city of Bomst, in Poland, perceiving a soldier making up to her, went to hide herself in a neighbouring marsh among some bushes; but the number of leeches was so great in that place, and they stuck to her so close, that the poor creature expired from the quantity of blood which she lost by their united efforts. Nor is this much to be wondered at, since one of those insects, when empty, generally weighs but a scruple, will, when gorged, weigh more than two drachms.

When leeches are to be applied, the best way is to take them from the water in which they are contained about an hour before, for they thus become more voracious, and fasten more readily. When saturated with blood, they generally fall off of themselves; but if it be thought necessary to take them from the wound, care should be used to pull them very gently, or even to sprinkle them with salt, if they continue to adhere: for if they be plucked rudely away, it most frequently happens that they leave their teeth in the wound, which makes a very troublesome inflammation, and is often attended with danger. If they be slow in fixing to the part, they are often enticed by rubbing it with milk or blood, or water mixed with sugar. As salt is a poison to most insects, many people throw it upon the leech when it has dropped from the wound, by which means it disgorges the blood it has swallowed, and it is then kept for repeated application. They seldom, however, stick after this operation; and as the price is but small, fresh leeches should always be applied whenever such an application is thought necessary.

BOOK II.

INSECTS OF THE SECOND ORDER.

CHAP. I.

OF THE SECOND ORDER OF INSECTS.

IN the former part we gave a concise history of the most considerable insects that, without wings, were produced in a perfect state; either from the body of the parent alive, like quadrupeds, or from the egg, in the manner of birds. We come now to a second order of insects, that are produced from the egg, like the former, but not in a perfect state; for when first excluded, they are without wings. This, however, does not hinder the exercise of their animal functions; the insect, although not yet come to perfection, walks, leaps, and eats: nor is it ever deprived of motion, only that it rests a little when it is about to cast that part of its skin previous to its state of perfection. It is then seen to assume two wings, which, like a budding flower, burst through the case that contained them, and the animal becomes a winged insect in its state of highest perfection. To this order we may refer the Libella, or Dragon-Fly; the Formica Leo, or Lion-Ant; the Grasshopper; the Locust; the Cricket; the Wood-Cricket; the Mole-Cricket; the Flea-Locust; the Flying-Bug; the Tipula; the Water-Scorpion; the Noto-necta, or Water-Fly; and many others.

CHAP. II.

OF THE LIBELLA, OR DRAGON-FLY.

OF all the flies which adorn, or diversify the face of nature, these are the most various and the most beautiful;

they are of all colours ; green, blue, crimson, scarlet, white : some unite a variety of the most vivid tints, and exhibit in one animal more different shades than are to be found in the rainbow. They are called, in different parts of the kingdom, by different names ; but none can be at a loss to know them, as they are distinguished from all other flies by the length of their bodies, by the largeness of their eyes, and the beautiful transparency of their wings, which are four in number. They are seen in summer flying with great rapidity near every hedge, and by every running brook ; they sometimes settle on the leaves of plants, and sometimes keep for hours together on the wing.

Dragon-flies, though there are three or four different kinds, yet agree in the most striking parts of their history, and one account may serve for all. The largest sort are generally found from two to three inches long ; their tail is forked ; their body divided into eleven rings ; their eyes are large, horny, and transparent, divided by a number of intersections ; and their wings, that always lie flat when they are at rest, are of a beautiful glossy transparency ; sometimes shining like silver, and sometimes glistening like gold. Within the mouth are to be seen two teeth covered with a beautiful lip ; with these the creatures bite fiercely when they are taken : but their bite is perfectly harmless, as I have experienced more than once.

These insects, beautiful as they are, are produced from eggs, which are deposited in the water, where they remain for some time without seeming life or motion. They are ejected by the female into the water in clusters, like a bunch of grapes, where they sink to the bottom by their natural weight, and continue in that state till the young ones find strength enough to break the shell, and to separate from each other. The form in which they first shew life, is that of a worm with six legs, bearing a strong resemblance to the dragon-fly in its winged state, except that the wings are yet concealed within a sheath peculiar to this animal. The rudiments of these appear in bunches on the back, within which the wings are folded up into each other, while all the colours and varieties of painting appear transparent through the skin. These animals, upon quitting the egg, still continue in the water, where they creep and swim, but do not move swiftly. They have likewise a

sharp sight, and immediately sink to the bottom, if any one comes to the places wherein they live, or whenever they perceive the least uncommon object. Their food, at that time, is soft mud and the glutinous earthy substances that are found at the bottom.

When these animals prepare to change from their reptile to their flying state, they then move out of the water to a dry place; as into grass; to pieces of wood, stone, or any thing else they meet with. They there firmly fix their acute claws; and, for a short time, continue quite immoveable, as if meditating on the change they are to undergo. It is then observed, that the skin first opens on the head and back; and out of this opening they exhibit their real head and eyes, and at length their six legs; whilst, in the mean time, the hollow and empty skin, or slough of their legs, remains firmly fixed in its place. After this, the enclosed creature creeps forward by degrees; and by this means draws first its wings, and then its body, out of the skin; and, proceeding a little farther, sits at rest, for some time, as if immoveable. During this time the wings, which were moist and folded, begin by degrees to expand themselves, and to make smooth and even all those plaits which were laid against each other, like a closed fan. The body is likewise insensibly extended until all the limbs have obtained their proper size and dimensions. All these surprising and difficult operations are accomplished by the force of the blood and the circulating humours. The creature cannot at first make use of its new wings, and therefore is forced to stay in the same place until all its limbs are dried by the circumambient air. It soon, however, begins to enter upon a more noble life than it had hitherto led in the bottom of the brook; and from creeping slowly, and living accidentally, it now wings the air, and makes choice from amidst the variety of its provisions.*

Indeed, no animal is more amply fitted for motion, subsistence, and enjoyment. As it haunts and seeks after its food flying in the air, Nature has provided it with two large eyes, which make almost the whole head, and which resem-

* During the grub-state of this animal, it preys with the most savage ferocity on all aquatic insects. It is, likewise, at this period, furnished with an apparatus at the end of the body, by which it can suck up and eject water with considerable force.

ble glittering mother-of-pearl. It has also four expansive silver-coloured wings, with which, as with oars, it can turn itself with prodigious velocity; and to assist these, it is furnished with a very long body, which, like a rudder, directs its motions. As the wings are long, and the legs short, they seldom walk, but are ever seen either resting or flying. For this reason, they always choose dry branches of trees or shrubs to remain on; and when they have refreshed themselves a little, they renew their flight. Thus they are seen adorning the summer with a profusion of beauty, lightly traversing the air in a thousand directions, and expanding the most beautiful colours to the sun. The garden, the forest, the hedges, and the rivulets, are animated by their sports; and there are few who have been brought up in the country, who have not employed a part of their childhood in the pursuit.

But while these beautiful flies appear to us so idly and innocently employed, they are in fact the greatest tyrants of the insect tribe; and, like the hawk among birds, are only hovering up and down to seize their prey. They are the strongest and the most courageous of all winged insects; nor is there one, how large soever, that they will not attack and devour. The blue-fly, the bee, the wasp, and the hornet, make their constant prey; and even the butterfly, that spreads so large a wing, is often caught and treated without mercy. Their appetite seems to know no bounds; they spend the whole day in the pursuit, and have been seen to devour three times their own size in the capture of a single hour. They seize their prey flying with their six claws, and tear it easily to pieces with their teeth, which are capable of inflicting troublesome wounds.

But the males are upon the wing for another purpose beside that of food, as they are very salacious, and seek the females with great ardour. The sun no sooner begins to warm the fields, than the males are found assiduously employed each in seeking its mate; and no sooner does a female appear, but two or three males are seen pursuing, and endeavouring to seize her with all their arts and agility. The instrument of generation in the male is placed very different from that of any other insect, being not at the end of the tail, as in others, but immediately under the breast, and consequently, at first view, incapable of being

united to the sexual part of the female; which, as in other insects, lies in the tail. To perform this junction, Nature has provided the male with a very peculiar manner of proceeding. As soon as he perceives the female, and finds himself sufficiently near, he seizes upon the back of her head by surprise, and fastening his claws upon her, turns round his forky tail, which he fastens round her neck; and in this manner fixes himself so closely and firmly, that no efforts can remove him. It is in vain that she flies from one branch to another, and settles upon them, he still keeps fixed, and often continues in this situation for three or four hours successively. When he flies, she is obliged to fly with him; but he still directs the way: and though she moves her wings, she seems entirely guided by his motion. As yet, however, the business of impregnation is not performed; for to this the female must contribute; and she at last seems, by the continuance of her restraint, to comply: for, turning up the end of her tail to that part of the breast of the male in which lies the part proper for generation, both instruments meet, and the eggs of the female receive the necessary fecundation. An hour or two after this, she flies to some neighbouring pool, where she deposits her eggs, as was already mentioned. There they continue in a reptile state for a year; and then are changed into a beautiful fly, resembling the parent.

CHAP. III.

OF THE FORMICA LEO, OR LION-ANT.

ALTHOUGH this animal properly belongs to no order of insects, yet as it is changed into a fly very much resembling that described in the preceding chapter, it may not be improper to give its history here. If we consider the life of this animal, in its different stages of existence, we shall find it equally wonderful in all; but as it changes to a dragon-fly, what we have said of that animal above, need not be repeated here. The lion-ant, when it becomes an inhabi-

tant of air, in every respect resembles that which has been already described; its glossy wings, its voracious appetites, its peculiar manner of generation, are entirely the same. It is in its reptile state that it differs from all other insects; and in that state it will be amusing to pursue its history.

The lion-ant, in its reptile state, is of the size of a common woodlouse, but somewhat broader. It has a pretty long head, and a roundish body, which becomes a little narrower towards the tail. The colour is a dirty gray, speckled with black, and the body is composed of several flat rings, which slip one upon another. It has six feet, four of which are fixed to the breast, and two to the neck. The head is small and flat, and before there are two little smooth horns or feelers, which are hard, about a quarter of an inch long, and crooked at the ends. At the basis of the feelers there are two small black lively eyes, by which it can see the smallest object, as is easily discovered by its starting from every thing that approaches.

To a form so unpromising, and so ill provided for the purposes of rapacity, this animal unites the most ravenous appetites in nature; but to mark its imbecility still stronger, as other animals have wings or feet to enable them to advance towards their prey, the lion-ant is unprovided with such assistance from either. It has legs, indeed; but these only enable it to run backward, so that it could as soon die as make the smallest progressive motion. Thus famished and rapacious as it ever seems, its prey must come to it, or rather into the snare provided for it, or the insidious assassin must starve.

But Nature, that has denied it strength or swiftness, has given it an equivalent in cunning, so that no animal fares more sumptuously, without ever stirring from its retreat. For this purpose, it chooses a dry sandy place at the foot of a wall, or under some shelter, in order to preserve its machinations from the rain. The driest and most sandy spot is the most proper for it; because a heavy clogged earth would defeat its labour. When it goes about to dig the hole where it takes its prey, it begins to bend the hinder part of its body, which is pointed, and thus works backward; making, after several attempts, a circular furrow, which serves to mark out the size of the hole it intends making, as the

ancients marked out the limits of a city with a plough. Within this first furrow it digs a second, then a third, and afterwards others, which are always less than the preceeding. Then it begins to deepen its hole, sinking lower and lower into the sand, which it throws with its horns or feelers towards the edges, as we see men throw up sand in a gravel-pit. Thus, by repeating its labours all round, the sand is thrown up in a circle about the edge of the pit, until the whole is quite completed. This hole is always formed in a perfect circle; and the pit itself resembles the inside of an inverted funnel. When this insect first leaves the egg, and is newly hatched, the first pit it makes is very small; but as it grows bigger, it makes a larger hole; which is destined, like a pit-fall, to entrap its prey. It is generally about two inches deep, and as much in diameter.

The work being thus, with great labour, finished, the insidious insect places itself in ambush, hiding itself in the bottom under the sand, in such a manner, that its two horns encircle the bottom of the pit. All the sides of this pit-fall are made of the most loose and crumbling materials; so that scarcely any insect can climb up that has once got down to the bottom. Conscious of this, the lion-ant remains in patient expectation, ready to profit by that accident which throws some heedless little animal into its den. If then, by misfortune, an ant, a wood-louse, or a small caterpillar, walks too near the edge of the precipice, the sand gives way beneath them, and they fall to the bottom of the pit, where they meet inevitable destruction. The fall of a single grain of sand gives the murderer notice at the bottom of its cave; and it never fails to sally forth to seize upon its prey. It happens sometimes, however, that the ant or the wood-louse is too nimble, and runs up the sides of the pit-fall before the other can make ready to seize it. The lion-ant has then another contrivance, still more wonderful than the former; for, by means of its broad head and feelers, it has a method of throwing up a shower of sand, which falls upon the struggling captive with tremendous weight, and once more crushes it down to the bottom. When the insect is once fallen thus low, no efforts can retrieve or release it; the lion-ant seizes it with its feelers, which are hollow, and darting them both into its body, sucks

out all the little animal's juices with the utmost rapacity.

When the prey is thus reduced to a husk, and nothing but the external form remains, the next care of the murderer is to remove the body from its cell; since the appearance of dead carcases might forewarn other insects of the danger of the place. The insect, therefore, takes up the wasted trunk with its feelers, and throws it, with wonderful strength, at least six inches from the edge of its hole; and then patiently sets about mending the breaches which its fortifications had received in the last engagement. Nothing can abate its industry, its vigilance, its patience, or its rapacity. It will work for a week together to make its pit-fall; it will continue upon the watch for more than a month, patiently expecting the approach of its prey; and if it comes in greater quantities than is needful, yet still the little voracious creature will quit the insect it has newly killed, and leave it half eaten, to kill and attack any other that happens to fall within the sphere of its malignity: though so voracious, it is surprisingly patient of hunger; some of them having been kept in a box with sand, for six months and upwards, without feeding at all.

When the lion-ant attains a certain age, in which it is to change into another form, it then leaves off its usual rapacious habits, but keeps on its industry. It no longer continues to make pits, but furrows up the sand all round in an irregular manner; testifying those workings and violent agitations, which most insects exhibit previous to their transformation. These animals are produced in autumn, and generally live a year, and perhaps two, before they assume a winged form. Certain it is, that they are found at the end of winter of all sizes; and it would seem that many of the smaller kinds had not yet attained sufficient maturity for transformation. Be this as it may, when the time of change approaches, if the insect finds its little cell convenient, it seeks no other; if it is obliged to remove, after furrowing up the sand, it hides itself under it, horns and all.—It there spins a thread, in the manner of the spider; which being made of a glutinous substance, and being humid from the moisture of its body, sticks to the little particles of

sand among which it is spun ; and in proportion as it is thus excluded, the insect rolls up its web, sand and all, into a ball, of which itself is the centre. This ball is about half an inch in diameter ; and within it the insect resides, in an apartment sufficiently spacious for all its motions. The outside is composed of sand and silk ; the inside is lined with silk only, of a fine pearl-colour, extremely delicate, and perfectly beautiful. But though the work is so curious within, it exhibits nothing to external appearance but a lump of sand ; and thus escapes the search of birds, that might otherwise disturb the inhabitant within.

The insect continues thus shut up for six weeks or two months ; and gradually parts with its eyes, its feelers, its feet, and its skin ; all which are thrust into a corner of the inner apartment, like a rag. The insect then appears almost in its winged state, except that there is a thin skin which wraps up the wings, and that appears to be nothing else but a liquor dried on their outside. Still, however, the little animal is too delicate and tender to venture from its retreat ; but continues inclosed for some time longer : at length, when the members of this new insect have acquired the necessary consistence and vigour, it tears open its lodging, and breaks through its wall. For this purpose it has two teeth, like those of grasshoppers, with which it eats through, and enlarges the opening, till it gets out. Its body, which is turned like a screw, takes up no more than the space of a quarter of an inch ; but when it is unfolded, it becomes half an inch in length ; while its wings, that seemed to occupy the smallest space, in two minutes' time unfold, and become longer than the body. In short, it becomes a large and beautiful fly, of the libellula kind, with a long slender body, of a brown colour ; a small head, with large bright eyes, long slender legs, and four large transparent reticulated wings. The rest of its habits resemble that insect whose form it bears ; except, that instead of dropping its egg in the water, it deposits them in sand, where they are soon hatched into that rapacious insect so justly admired for its method of catching its prey.

CHAP. IV.

OF THE GRASSHOPPER, THE LOCUST, THE CICADA, THE CRICKET, AND THE MOLE-CRICKET.

BELONGING to the second order of insects, we find a tribe of little animals, which, though differing in size and colour, strongly resemble each other in figure, appetites, nature, and transformation. But though they all appear of one family, yet man has been taught to hold them in different estimation; for while some of this tribe amuse him with their chirpings, and banish solitude from the fields, others come in swarms, eat up every thing that is green, and, in a single night, convert the most delightful landscape into a dreary waste. However, if these animals be separately considered, the devouring locust is not, in the least, more mischievous than the musical grasshopper; the only difference is, that one species comes for food in a swarm, the other feeds singly.

That animal which is called the grasshopper with us, differs greatly from the cicada of antiquity; for as our insect is active enough in hopping through the long grass, from whence it has taken its name, the cicada had not this power, but either walked or flew. The little hissing note also of our grasshopper is very different from the song of the cicada, which was louder, and far more musical. The manner in which this note is produced by the two animals is very different; for the cicada makes it by a kind of buckler, which the male has beneath its belly; the grasshopper, by a transparent membrane that covers a hole at the base of its wings. There is still a greater variety in all these with regard to shape and colour. Some are green, some black, some livid, and some variegated; but many of them do not show all their colours till they fly. Some have long legs, some short, some with more joints, others with fewer. Some sing, others are mute: some are innocent, doing no damage to the husbandman; while others do such prodigious mischief, that they are looked upon, in some countries, as one of the terrible scourges of the incensed Divinity.

Of this variegated tribe, the little grasshopper that breeds in such plenty in every meadow, and that continues its

chirping through the summer, is best known to us ; and by having its history, we shall be possessed of that of all the rest. This animal is of the colour of green leaves, except a line of brown which streaks the back, and two pale lines under the belly and behind the legs. It may be divided into the head, the corselet, and the belly. The head is oblong, regarding the earth, and bearing some resemblance to that of a horse. Its mouth is covered by a kind of round buckler jutting over it, and armed with teeth of a brown colour, hooked at the points. Within the mouth is perceivable a large reddish tongue, and fixed to the lower jaw. The feelers or horns are very long, tapering off to a point ; and the eyes are like two black specks, a little prominent. The corselet is elevated, narrow, armed above and below by two serrated spines. The back is armed with a strong buckler, to which the muscles of the legs are firmly bound, and round these muscles are seen the vessels by which the animal breathes, as white as snow. The last pair of legs are much longer and stronger than the first two pair, fortified by thick muscles, and very well formed for leaping. It has four wings ; the anterior ones springing from the second pair of legs, the posterior from the third pair. The hinder wings are much finer, and more expansive, than the foremost, and are the principal instruments of its flight. The belly is considerably large, composed of eight rings, and terminated by a forked tail, covered with down, like the tail of a rat. When examined internally, besides the gullet, we discover a small stomach ; and behind that a very large one, wrinkled and furrowed within side : lower down, there is still a third ; so that it is not without reason that all the animals of this order are said to chew the cud, as they so much resemble ruminant animals in their internal conformation.

A short time after the grasshopper assumes its wings, it fills the meadow with its note ; which, like that among birds, is a call to courtship. The male only of this tribe is vocal ; and, upon examining at the base of the wings, there will be found a little hole in its body, covered with a fine transparent membrane. This is thought, by Linnæus, to be the instrument it employs in singing : but others are of opinion the sound is produced by rubbing its hinder legs against each other : however this be, the note of one male

is seldom heard, but it is returned by another; and the two little animals, after many mutual insults of this kind, are seen to meet and fight desperately. The female is generally the reward of victory; for, after the combat, the male seizes her with his teeth behind the neck, and thus keeps her for several hours, till the business of fecundation is performed. They are, at that time, so strongly united, that they can scarcely be separated without tearing asunder. Towards the latter end of autumn the female prepares to deposit her burden; and her body is then seen greatly distended with her eggs, which she carries to the number of an hundred and fifty. In order to make a proper lodgment in the earth for them, Nature has furnished her with an instrument at her tail, somewhat resembling a two-edged sword, which she can sheathe and unsheathe at pleasure: with this she pierces the earth as deep as she is able; and into the hole, which her instrument has made, she deposits her eggs, one after the other.

Having thus provided for the continuation of her posterity, the animal herself does not long survive; but as the winter approaches, she dries up, seems to feel the effects of age, and dies from total decay. Some, however, assert, that she is killed by the cold; and others, that she is eaten by worms: but certain it is, that neither the male nor female are ever seen to survive the winter. In the mean time, the eggs which have been deposited continue unaltered, either by the severity of the season, or the retardation of the spring. They are of an oval figure, white, and of the consistence of horn: their size nearly equals that of a grain of anise: they are enveloped in the body within a covering, branched all over with veins and arteries; and when excluded they crack, on being pressed between the fingers; their substance within is a whitish, viscous, and transparent fluid. In this manner they remain deposited beneath the surface of the earth during the whole winter; till the genial return of spring begins to vivify and hatch them. The sun, with its warmth, beginning to animate all nature, the insect eggs feel its benign influence; and, generally, about the beginning of May, every egg produces an insect about the size of a flea. These, at first, are of a whitish colour; at the end of two or three days they turn black; and soon after they become of a reddish brown.

They appear, from the beginning, like grasshoppers, wanting wings; and hop among the grass, as soon as excluded, with great agility.

Yet still they are by no means arrived at their state of full perfection, although they bear a strong resemblance to the animal in its perfect form. They want, or seem to want, the wings, which they are at last seen to assume; and can only hop among the grass, without being able to fly. The wings, however, are not wanting, but are concealed within four little bunches, that seem to deform the sides of the animal: there they lie rolled up in a most curious manner; and occupying a smaller space than one could conceive who saw them extended. Indeed, all insects, whatever transmutations they seem to undergo, are yet brought forth with those very limbs, parts, and wings, which they afterwards seem to acquire. In the most helpless caterpillar there is still to be seen the rudiments of that beautiful plumage which it afterwards expands when a butterfly: and though many new parts seem unfolded to the view, the animal acquires none but such as it was from the beginning possessed of. The grasshopper, therefore, though seemingly without wings, is, in reality, from the first, possessed of those instruments, and only waits for sufficient force to break the bonds that hold them folded up, and to give them their full expansion.

The grasshopper, that, for above twenty days from its exclusion, has continued without the use of its wings, which were folded up to its body, at length prepares for its emancipation, and for a life of greater liberty and pleasure. To make the proper dispositions for the approaching change, it ceases from its grassy food, and seeks about for a convenient place, beneath some thorn or thistle, that may protect it from an accidental shower. The same laborious writhings and workings, heavings and palpitations, which we have remarked in every other insect upon an approaching change, are exhibited in this. It swells up its head and neck; it then seems to draw them in again; and thus alternately, for some time, it exerts its powers to get free. At length, the skin covering the head and breast is seen dividing above the neck; the head is seen issuing out first from the bursting skin; the efforts still continuing, the other parts follow successively; so that the little animal, with its long

feelers, legs and all, works its way from the old skin, that remains fixed to the thistle or the thorn. It is, indeed, inconceivable how the insect can thus extricate itself from so exact a sheath as that which covereth every part of its body.

The grasshopper, thus disengaged from its outer skin, appears in its perfect form; but then so feeble, and its body so soft and tender, that it may be moulded like wax. It is no longer of that obscure colour which it exhibited before, but of a greenish white, which becomes more vivid as the moisture on the surface is dried away. Still, however, the animal continues to shew no signs of life, but appears quite spent and fatigued with its labour for more than an hour together. During this time, the body is drying, and the wings unfolding to their greatest expansion; and the curious observer will perceive them, fold after fold, opening to the sun, till at last they become longer than the two hinder legs. The insect's body also is lengthened during this operation, and it becomes much more beautiful than before.

These insects are generally vocal in the midst of summer, and they are heard at sun-setting much louder than during the heats of the day. They are fed upon grass; and, if their belly be pressed, they will be seen to return the juices of the plants they have last fed upon. Though unwilling to fly, and slow in flight, particularly when the weather is moist or cool, they are sometimes seen to fly to considerable distances. If they are caught by one of the hinder legs, they quickly disengage themselves from it, and leave the leg behind them. This, however, does not grow again, as with crabs or spiders; for as they are animals but of a single year's continuance, they have not sufficient time for repairing those accidental misfortunes. The loss of their leg also prevents them from flying; for being unable to lift themselves in the air, they have not room upon the ground for the proper expansion of their wings. If they be handled roughly, they will bite very fiercely; and when they fly, they make a noise with their wings. They generally keep in the plain, where the grass is luxuriant, and the ground rich and fertile: there they deposit their eggs, particularly in those cracks which are formed by the heat of the sun.

Such are the habits and nature of those little vocal insects that swarm in our meadows, and enliven the landscape. The larger kinds only differ from them in size, in rapidity of flight, and the powers of injuring mankind, by swarming upon the productions of the earth. The quantity of grass which a few grasshoppers that sport in the fields can destroy is trifling; but when a swarm of locusts, two or three miles long, and several yards deep, settle upon a field, the consequences are frightful. The annals of every country are marked with the devastation which such a multitude of insects produces; and though they seldom visit Europe in such dangerous swarms as formerly, yet, in some of the southern kingdoms, they are still formidable. Those which have, at uncertain intervals, visited Europe, in our memory, are supposed to have come from Africa, and the animal is called the Great Brown Locust. It was seen in several parts of England in the year 1748, and many dreadful consequences were apprehended from its appearance. This insect is about three inches long; and has two horns or feelers, an inch in length. The head and horns are of a brownish colour; it is blue about the mouth, as also on the inside of the larger legs. The shield that covers the back is greenish; and the upper side of the body brown, spotted with black, and the under side purple. The upper wings are brown, with small dusky spots, with one larger at the tips; the under wings are more transparent, and of a light brown, tinged with green, but there is a dark cloud of spots near the tips. This is that insect that has threatened us so often with its visitations; and that is so truly terrible in the countries where it is bred. There is no animal in the creation that multiplies so fast as these, if the sun be warm, and the soil in which their eggs are deposited be dry. Happily for us, the coldness of our climate, and the humidity of our soil, are no way favourable to their production; and as they are but the animals of a year, they visit us and perish.

The Scripture, which was written in a country where the locust made a distinguished feature in the picture of nature, has given us several very striking images of this animal's numbers and rapacity. It compares an army, where the numbers are almost infinite, to a swarm of locusts: it describes them as rising out of the earth, where they are pro-

duced ; as pursuing a settled march to destroy the fruits of the earth, and co-operate with divine indignation.

When the locusts take the field, as we are assured, they have a leader at their head, whose flight they observe, and pay a strict attention to all his motions. They appear, at a distance, like a black cloud, which, as it approaches, gathers upon the horizon, and almost hides the light of the day. It often happens that the husbandman sees this imminent calamity pass away without doing him any mischief ; and the whole swarm proceed onward, to settle upon the labours of some less fortunate country. But wretched is the district upon which they settle : they ravage the meadow and the pasture ground ; strip the trees of their leaves, and the garden of its beauty : the visitation of a few minutes destroys the expectations of a year ; and a famine but too frequently ensues. In their native tropical climates they are not so dreadful as in the more southern parts of Europe. There, though the plain and the forest be stripped of their verdure, the power of vegetation is so great, that an interval of three or four days repairs the calamity : but our verdure is the livery of a season ; and we must wait till the ensuing spring repairs the damage. Besides, in their long flights to this part of the world, they are famished by the tediousness of their journey, and are, therefore, more voracious wherever they happen to settle. But it is not by what they devour that they do so much damage as by what they destroy. Their very bite is thought to contaminate the plant, and to prevent its vegetation. To use the expression of the husbandman, they burn whatever they touch, and leave the marks of their devastation for two or three years ensuing. But if they be noxious while living, they are still more so when dead ; for wherever they fall, they infect the air in such a manner, that the smell is insupportable. Orosius tell us, that, in the year of the world 3800, there was an incredible number of locusts which infected Africa ; and, after having eaten up every thing that was green, they flew off, and were drowned in the African sea ; where they caused such a stench, that the putrefying bodies of hundreds of thousands of men could not equal it.

In the year 1690, a cloud of locusts was seen to enter Russia in three different places ; and from thence to spread

themselves over Poland and Lithuania, in such astonishing multitudes, that the air was darkened, and the earth covered with their numbers. In some places they were seen lying dead, heaped upon each other four feet deep; in others, they covered the surface like a black cloth: the trees bent beneath their weight; and the damage which the country sustained exceeded computation. In Barbary their numbers are formidable, and their visits are frequent. In the year 1724, Dr. Shaw was a witness, in that country, of their devastations. Their first appearance was about the latter end of March, when the wind had been southerly for some time. In the beginning of April, their numbers were so vastly increased, that, in the heat of the day, they formed themselves into large swarms, which appeared like clouds, and darkened the sun. In the middle of May they began to disappear, retiring into the plains to deposit their eggs. In the next month, being June, the young brood began to make their appearance, forming many compact bodies of several hundred yards square; which afterwards marching forward, climbed the trees, walls, and houses, eating every thing that was green in their way. The inhabitants, to stop their progress, laid trenches all over their fields and gardens, filling them with water. Some placed large quantities of heath, stubble, and such like combustible matter, in rows, and set them on fire on the approach of the locusts. But all this was to no purpose; for the trenches were quickly filled up, and the fires put out by the vast number of swarms that succeeded each other. A day or two after one of these was in motion, others that were just hatched came to glean after them, gnawing off the young branches and the very bark of the trees. Having lived near a month in this manner, they arrived at their full growth, and threw off their worm-like state, by casting their skins. To prepare themselves for this change, they fixed their hinder feet to some bush or twig, or corner of a stone, when immediately, by an undulating motion used on this occasion, their heads would first appear, and soon after the rest of their bodies. The whole transformation was performed in seven or eight minutes' time; after which, they were a little while in a languishing condition; but as soon as the sun and air had hardened their wings, and dried up the moisture that remained after casting

off their sloughs, they returned again to their former greediness, with an addition both of strength and agility. But they did not continue long in this state before they were entirely dispersed; after laying their eggs, directing their course northward, they probably perished in the sea. It is said that the holes these animals make, to deposit their egg, are four feet deep in the ground; the eggs are about fourscore in number, of the size of caraway comforts, and bundled up together in clusters.

It would be endless to recount all the mischiefs which these famished insects have at different times occasioned; but what can have induced them to take such distant flights, when they come into Europe, is not so easy to be accounted for. It seems most probable, that, by means of a very dry season in the heart of Africa, they are propagated in such numbers, that the vegetables of the spot where they are produced are not sufficient to sustain them. Thus being obliged to find out other countries, they traverse the sandy deserts, where they can find no sustenance: still meeting with nothing to allure them from their height, they proceed forward across the sea, and thus come into Europe, where they alight upon the first green pastures that occur.

In some parts of the world the inhabitants turn what seems a plague to their own advantage. Locusts are eaten by the natives in many kingdoms of the East; and are caught in small nets provided for that purpose. They parch them over the fire in an earthen pan; and when their wings and legs are fallen off, they turn reddish, of the colour of boiled shrimps. Dampier has eaten them thus prepared, and thinks them a tolerable dish. The natives of Barbary also eat them fried with salt; and they are said to taste like cray-fish.

There is a locust in Tonquin, about the bigness of the top of a man's finger, and as long as the first joint. It breeds in the earth, in low grounds; and in the months of January and February, which is the season for taking them, they issue from the earth in vast swarms. At first they can hardly fly, so that they often fall into the rivers in great numbers: however, the natives in these months watch the rivers, and take them up in multitudes in small nets. They either eat them fresh, broiled on the coals, or pickle them for keeping. They are considered as a great delicacy in that

part of the world, as well by the rich as the poor. In the countries where they are eaten, they are regularly brought to market, and sold as larks or quails in Europe. They must have been a common food with the Jews, as Moses, in the book of Leviticus, permits them to eat four different kinds of this animal, which he takes care to specify. This dish, however, has not yet made its way into the kitchens of the luxurious in Europe; and though we may admire the delicacies of the East, we are as yet happily deprived of the power of imitation.

Of all animals, however, of this noxious tribe, the Great West Indian Locust, individually considered, is the most formidable. It is about the thickness of the barrel of a goose-quill, and the body is divided into nine or ten joints; in the whole, about six or seven inches long. It has two small eyes standing out of the head, like those of crabs; and two feelers, like long hair. The whole body is studded with small excrescences, which are not much bigger than the points of pins. The shape is roundish, and the body diminishes in circumference to the tail, which is forked into two horns. Between this, there is a sort of a sheath containing a small dangerous sting. If any person happens to touch this insect, he is sure to be stung; and is immediately taken with a shivering and trembling all over the body; which, however, may soon be put a stop to, by rubbing the place that was affected with a little palm oil.*

From the locust we descend to the Cricket, which is a very inoffensive and pretty animal. Though there be a species of this insect that lives entirely in the woods and fields, yet that with which we are best acquainted is the House-cricket, whose voice is so well known behind a country fire in a winter's evening. There is something so unusual in hearing a sound while we do not see the animal producing it, nor discover the place from whence it comes, that, among the country people, the chirping of the cricket is always held ominous; and whether it deserts the fire-side, or pays an unexpected visit, the credulous peasantry always find something to be afraid of. In general, however, the killing of a cricket is considered as a most unlucky omen: and though their company is not much desired, yet no methods must be taken to remove them.

* It is now known that every insect of this tribe is perfectly harmless

The cricket very much resembles the grasshopper in its shape, its manner of ruminating, its voice, its hopping, and methods of propagation. It differs in its colour, which is uniformly of a rusty brown; in its food, which is more various; and in its place of residence, which is most usually in the warmest chimneys behind a country house. They are, in some measure, obliged to the host who employs them in making peasants' houses for their retreats. The smallest chink craves to give them shelter; and where they once make their abode they are sure to proliferate. They are of a most chilly nature, seldom leaving the fire-side; and, if undisturbed, are seen to hop from their retreats to chirrup at the blaze in the chimney. The wood-cricket is the most timorous animal in nature; but the chimney-cricket, being used to noise, disregard, not only, those, but the appearance of people near it. Whether the voice of this animal is formed in the same manner with that of the grasshopper, by a fine membrane at the base of the wings, which is moved by a muscle, and which being coiled up, gives a sound like a quail-pipe, is not yet ascertained; nor do we well know the use of this voice, since anatomical inspection has not yet been able to discover the smallest organs of hearing. Still, however, we can make no doubt of their power of distinguishing sounds, though probably not in the same manner with the more perfect ranks of nature. Certain it is, that I have often heard them call, and this call was as regularly answered by another, although none but the males are vocal.

As the cricket lives chiefly in the dark, so its eyes seem formed for the gloominess of its abode; and those who would surprise it, have only to light a candle unexpectedly; by which it is dazzled, and cannot find the way back to its retreat. It is a very voracious little animal, and will eat bread, flour, and meat; but it is particularly fond of sugar. They never drink, but keep for months together at the back of the chimney, where they could possibly have had no moisture. The warmth of their situation only serves to increase their mirth and loquacity. Except in the very coldest weather, they never cease their chirruping, but continue that little piercing note, which is as pleasing to some as it is disagreeable to others. The great Scaliger was particularly delighted with the chirruping of crickets, and kept several of them for

his amusement, enclosed in a box, which he placed in a warm situation. Others, on the contrary, think there is something ominous and melancholy in the sound, and use every endeavour to banish this insect from their houses. Ledelius tells us of a woman who was very much incommoded by crickets, and tried, but in vain, every method of banishing them from her house. She at last accidentally succeeded; for having one day invited several guests to her house, where there was a wedding, in order to increase the festivity of the entertainment, she procured drums and trumpets to entertain them. The noise of these was so much greater than what the little animals were used to, that they instantly forsook their situation, and were never heard in that mansion more.

But of all the cricket kind, that which is called the *Mole Cricket* is the most extraordinary. This animal is the largest of all the insects with which we are acquainted in this country, being two inches and a half in length, and three quarters of an inch in breadth. The colour is of a dusky brown; and at the extremity of the tail there are two hairy excrescences, resembling, in some sense, the tail of a mouse. The body consists of eight scaly joints, or separate folds; is brown on the upper part, and more deeply tinged below. The wings are long, narrow, and terminate in a sharp point, each having a blackish line running down it: however, when they are extended, they appear to be much broader than could at first sight be supposed. The shield of the breast is of a firm texture, of a blackish colour, and hairy. The fore-feet, which are this animal's principal instruments of burrowing into the earth, are strong, webbed, and hairy; it generally, however, runs backward; but it is commonly under ground, where it burrows even faster than a mole. It is thought also to be amphibious, and capable of living under water, as well as under ground.

Of all insects this is the most detested by gardeners, as it chiefly resides in that ground which lies light, and where it finds sufficient plenty under the surface. Thus, in a single night's time, it will run along a furrow, which has been newly sown, and rob it of all its contents. Its legs are formed in such a manner that it can penetrate the earth in every direction; before, behind, and above it. At night it ventures from its under-ground habitation, and, like the

cricket, has its chirping call. When the female is fecundated, she makes a cell of clammy earth, the inside of which is large enough to hold two hazel-nuts; and in this she lays her eggs. The whole nest is about the size of a common hen's egg, closed up on every side, and well defended from the smallest breath of air. The eggs generally amount to the number of a hundred and fifty, being white, and about the size of a caraway comfort. They are thus carefully covered, as well to defend them from the injuries of the weather, as from the attacks of the black-beetle; that being itself an under-ground inhabitant, would, but for this precaution, devour or destroy them. To prevent this, the female mole-cricket is often posted as a centinel near the nest; and when the black invader plunges in to seize its prey, the guardian insect seizes him behind, and instantly bites him in two.

Nothing can exceed the care and assiduity which these animals exhibit in the preservation of their young. Wherever the nest is placed, there seems to be a fortification, avenues, and entrenchments, drawn round it: there are numberless winding ways that lead to it, and a ditch drawn about it, which few of its insect enemies are able to pass. But their care is not confined to this only; for, at the approach of winter, they carry their nest entirely away, and sink it deeper in the ground, so that the frost can have no influence in retarding the young brood from coming to maturity. As the weather grows milder, they raise their magazine in proportion; till, at last, they bring it as near the surface as they can, to receive the genial influence of the sun, without wholly exposing it to view; yet, should the frost unexpectedly return, they sink it again as before.*

CHAP. V.

OF THE EARWIG, THE FROTH INSECT, AND SOME OTHERS
BELONGING TO THE SECOND ORDER OF INSECTS.

WE should still keep in memory, that all insects of the second order, though not produced quite perfect from the egg, yet want very little of their perfection, and require but a very small change to arrive at that state which fits them for flight and generation. The natural functions in these are

* Among this tribe may be numbered the great Lantern Fly of Peru, an insect the most splendid and luminous of all that are yet known. In the head is contained a phosphorescent light, sufficiently vivid to serve

never suspended ; from the instant they leave the egg, they continue to eat, to move, to leap, and pursue their prey : a slight change ensues ; a skin, that enclosed a part of their body and limbs, bursts behind, like a woman's stays, and gives freedom to a set of wings, with which the animal expatiates, and flies in pursuit of its mate.

Of all this class of insects, the Earwig undergoes the smallest change. This animal is so common that it scarce needs a description ; its swiftness, in the reptile state, is not less remarkable than its indefatigable velocity when upon the wing. That it must be very prolific, appears from its numbers ; and that it is very harmless, every one's experience can readily testify. It is provided with six feet, and two feelers ; the tail is forked ; and with this it often attempts to defend itself against every assailant. But its attempts are only the threats of impotence ; they draw down the resentment of powerful animals, but no way serve to defend it. The deformity of its figure, and its slender make, have also subjected it to an imputation, which, though entirely founded in prejudice, has more than once procured its destruction. It is supposed, as the name imports, that it often enters into the ears of people sleeping ; thus causing madness from the intolerable pain, and soon after death itself. Indeed, the French name, which signifies the Ear-piercer, urges the calumny against this harmless insect in very plain terms ; yet nothing can be more unjust : the ear is already filled with a substance which prevents any insect from entering ; and, besides, it is well lined, and defended with membranes, which would keep out any little animal, even though the ear-wax were away. These reproaches, therefore, are entirely groundless : but it were well if the accusations which gardeners bring against the earwig were so slightly founded. There is nothing more certain than that it lives among flowers, and destroys them. When fruit also has been wounded by flies, the earwig generally comes in for a second feast, and sucks those juices which they first began to broach. Still, however, this insect is not so noxious as it would seem ; and seldom is found but where the mischief has been ori-

the purposes of a candle in a dark room ; or, when two or three are put together at the end of a stick, to light travellers on the road like a lantern. It is about the size of a larger kind of locust, and the wings and whole body are beautifully variegated.

ginally begun by others. Like all of this class, the earwig is hatched from an egg. As there are various kinds of this animal, so they choose different places to breed in: in general, however, they lay their eggs under the bark of plants, or in the clefts of trees, when beginning to decay. They proceed from the egg in that reptile state in which they are most commonly seen; and, as they grow larger, the wings bound under the skin begin to bourgeon. It is amazing how very little room four large wings take up before they are protruded; for no person could ever conceive such an expansion of natural drapery could be rolled up in so small a packet. The sheath in which they are enveloped, folds and covers them so neatly, that the animal seems quite destitute of wings;* and even when they are burst from their confinement, the animal, by the power of the muscles and joints which it has in the middle of its wings, can closely fold them into a very narrow compass. When the earwig has become a winged insect, it flies in pursuit of the female, ceasing to feed, and is wholly employed in the business of propagation. It lives in its winged state but a few days; and having taken care for the continuance of posterity, dries up, and dies to all appearance consumptive.†

To this order of insects we may also refer the Cuckow Spit, or Froth Worm, that is often found hid in that frothy matter which we find on the surface of plants. It has an oblong obtuse body; and a large head with small eyes. The external wings, for it has four, are of a dusky brown, marked with two white spots: the head is black. The spume in which it is found wallowing is all of its own formation, and very much resembles frothy spittle. It proceeds from the vent of the animal, and other parts of the body; and if it be wiped away, a new quantity will be quickly seen ejected from the little animal's body. Within this spume it is seen in time to acquire four tubercles on its back, wherein the wings are enclosed: these bursting, from a reptile it becomes a winged animal; and thus rendered perfect, it flies to meet its mate, and propagate its kind.

The Water Tipula also belongs to this class. It has an

* Swammerdam, p. 114.

† The indefatigable M. de Geer has discovered that the female earwig sits over her eggs, and fosters her young, in the same manner as a hen does her chickens.

oblong slender body, with four feet fixed upon the breast, and four feelers near the mouth. It has four weak wings, which do not at all seem proper for flying, but leaping only. But what this insect chiefly demands our attention for, is the wonderful lightness wherewith it runs on the surface of the water, so as scarce to put it in motion. It is sometimes seen in rivers, and on their banks, especially under shady trees; and generally in swarms of several together.

The Common Water-fly also breeds in the same manner with those above mentioned. This animal is by some called *Notonecta*, because it does not swim, in the usual manner, upon its belly, but on its back: nor can we help admiring that fitness in this insect for its situation, as it feeds on the under-side of plants which grow on the surface of the water; and therefore it is thus formed with its mouth upwards, to take its food with greater convenience and ease.

We may also add the Water-Scorpion, which is a large insect, being near an inch in length, and about half an inch in breadth. Its body is nearly oval, but very flat and thin; and its tail long and pointed. The head is small; and the feelers appear like legs, resembling the claws of a scorpion, but without sharp points. This insect is generally found in ponds; and is, of all others, the most tyrannical and rapacious. It destroys, like a wolf among sheep, twenty times as many as its hunger requires. One of these, when put into a basin of water, in which were thirty or forty worms of the libellula kind, each as large as itself, destroyed them all in a few minutes; getting on their backs, and piercing with its trunk through their body. These animals, however, though so formidable to others, are nevertheless themselves greatly overrun with a little kind of louse, about the size of a nit, which very probably repays the injury which the water-scorpion inflicts upon others.

The water-scorpions live in the water by day: out of which they rise, in the dusk of the evening, into the air, and so flying from place to place often betake themselves, in quest of food, to other waters. The insect, before its wings are grown, remains in the place where it was produced; but when come to its state of perfection, sallies forth in search of a companion of the other sex, in order to continue its noxious posterity.

CHAP. VI.

OF THE EPHEMERA.

THE last insect we shall add to the second order is the Ephemera; which, though not strictly belonging to it, yet seems more properly referred to this rank than any other. Indeed, we must not attend to the rigour of method in a history where Nature seems to take delight to sport in variety.

That there should be a tribe of flies whose duration extends but to a day, seems, at first surprising; but the wonder will increase, when we are told, that some of this kind seem to be born and to die in a space of a single hour. The reptile, however, from which they are bred, is by no means so short-lived; but is sometimes seen to live two years, and many times three years together.

All ephemeræ, of which there are various kinds, are produced from the egg in the form of worms; from whence they change into a more perfect form; namely, that of aurelias, which is a kind of middle state between a worm and a fly; and from thence they take their last mutation, which is into a beautiful fly, of longer or shorter duration, according to its kind.

The ephemera, in its fly state, is a very beautiful winged insect, and has a strong similitude to the butterfly, both from its shape and its wings. It is about the size of a middling butterfly; but its wings differ in not being covered with the painted dust with which those of butterflies are adorned, and rendered opaque, for they are very transparent, and very thin. These insects have four wings, the uppermost of which are much the largest; when the insect is at rest, it generally lays its wings one over the other, on the back. The body is long, being formed of six rings, that are larger at the origin than near the extremity; and from this a tail proceeds, that is longer than all the rest of the fly, and consists sometimes of three threads of an equal length, or sometimes of two long and one short. To acquire this beautiful form, the insect has been obliged to undergo several transmutations; but its glory is very short-lived, for the hour of its perfection is the hour of its death; and it seems scarcely introduced to pleasure, when it is obliged to part with life.

The reptile that is to become a fly, and that is granted so long a term, when compared to its latter duration, is an inhabitant of the water, and bears a very strong resemblance to fishes, in many particulars; having gills by which it breathes at the bottom, and also the tapering form of aquatic animals. These insects have six scaly legs, fixed on their corselet. Their head is triangular: the eyes are placed forward, and may be distinguished by their largeness and colour. The mouth is furnished with teeth; and the body consists of six rings; that next the corselet being largest, but growing less and less to the end: the last ring is the shortest, from which the three threads proceed, which are as long as the whole body. Thus we see that the reptile bears a very strong resemblance to the fly; and only requires wings to be very near its perfection.

As there are several kinds of this animal, their aurelias are, consequently, of different colours; some yellow, some brown, and some cream-coloured. Some of these also bore themselves cells at the bottom of the water, from which they never stir out, but feed upon the mud composing the walls of their habitation, in contented captivity; others, on the contrary, range about, go from the bottom to the surface, swim between two waters, quit that element entirely to feed upon plants by the river side, and then return to their favourite element for safety and protection.

The reptile, however, though it lives two or three years, offers but little, in its long duration, to excite curiosity: it is hid at the bottom of the water, and feeds almost wholly within its narrow habitation. The most striking facts command our attention during the short interval of its fly state; into which it crowds the most various transactions of its little life. It then may be said to be in a hurry to live, as it has but so small a time to exist. The peculiar sign whereby to know that these reptiles will change into flies in a short time, consists in a protuberance of the wings on the back. About that time the smooth and depressed form of the upper part of the body is changed into a more swollen and rounder shape; so that the wings are, in some degree, visible through the external sheath that covers them. As they are not natives of England, he who would see them in their greatest abundance must walk, about sun-set, along the banks of the Rhine or the Seine near Paris; where, for about three or four miles, they are

midst of summer, he will be astonished at their numbers and assiduity. The thickest descent of the flakes of snow in winter seems not to equal their number: the whole air seems alive with the new-born race; and the earth itself is all over covered with their remains. The aurelias, or reptile insects, that are, as yet, beneath the surface of the water, wait only for the approach of evening to begin their transformation. The most industrious shake off their old garments about eight o'clock; and those who are the most tardy, are transformed before nine.

We have already seen that the operation of change in other insects is laborious and painful; but with these nothing seems shorter, or performed with greater ease. The aurelias are scarcely lifted above the surface of the water, than their old sheathing-skin bursts; and through the cavity which is thus formed, a fly issues, whose wings, at the same instant, are unfolded, and, at the same time lift it into the air. Millions and millions of aurelias rise in this manner to the surface; and at once become flies, and fill every quarter with their flutterings. But all these sports are shortly to have an end; for, as the little strangers live but an hour or two, the whole swarm soon falls to the ground, and covers the earth, like a deep snow, for several hundred yards, on every side of the river. Their numbers are then incredible, and every object they touch becomes fatal to them; for they instantly die if they hit even against each other.

At this time the males and females are very differently employed. The males, quite inactive, and apparently without desires, seem only born to die: no way like the males of other insects; they neither follow the opposite sex, nor bear any enmity to each other: after fluttering for an hour or two, they drop upon land, without seeming to receive wings for scarce any other purpose but to satisfy an idle curiosity. It is otherwise with the females; they are scarce risen from the surface of the water, and have dried their wings, but they hasten to drop their eggs back again. If they happen also to flutter upon land, they deposit their burden in the place where they drop. But then it may be demanded, where, and in what manner, are these eggs fecundated, as no copulation whatever appears between the sexes in their transitory visits in air? Swammerdam is of opinion, that they are impregnated in the manner of fish-spawn, by the male, after

being ejected by the female ; but, beside that, this doctrine is exploded even from the history of fishes, it is certain that the males have not time for this operation, as the eggs drop to the bottom the instant they are laid on the water. Reaumur is of opinion that they copulate ; but that the act bears a proportion in shortness to the small duration of their lives ; and, consequently, must be so soon performed as to be scarcely visible. This, however, is at best forcing a theory ; and it is probable, that as there are many insects known to breed without any impregnation from the male, as we have already seen in muscles and oysters, and shall hereafter see in the gnat, and a species of the beetle, so the ephemera may be of this number. Be this as it may, the females are in such haste to deposit their eggs, that multitudes of them fall to the ground ; but the greatest part are laid in the water. As they flutter upon the surface, two clusters are seen issuing from the extremity of their body, each containing about three hundred and fifty eggs, which make seven hundred in all. Thus, of all insects, this appears to be the most prolific ; and it would seem that there was a necessity for such a supply, as, in its reptile state, it is the favourite food of every kind of fresh-water fish. It is in vain that these little animals form galleries at the bottom of the river, from whence they seldom remove ; many kinds of fish break in upon their retreats, and thin their numbers. For this reason fishermen are careful to provide themselves with these insects, as the most grateful bait ; and thus turn the fish's rapacity to its own destruction.

But though the usual date of those flies is two or three hours at farthest, there are some kinds that live several days ; and one kind in particular, after quitting the water, has another case or skin to get rid of. These are often seen in the fields and woods distant from the water ; but they are more frequently found in its vicinity. They are often found sticking upon walls and trees ; and frequently with the head downwards, without changing place, or having any sensible motion. They are then waiting for the moment when they shall be divested of their last incommodious garment, which sometimes does not happen for two or three days together.

BOOK III.

OF INSECTS OF THE THIRD ORDER.



CHAP. I.

OF CATERPILLARS IN GENERAL.

IF we take a cursory view of insects in general, caterpillars alone, and the butterflies and moths they give birth to, will make a third part of the number. Wherever we move, wherever we turn, these insects, in one shape or another, present themselves to our view. Some, in every state, offer the most entertaining spectacle; others are beautiful only in their winged form. Many persons, of which number I am one, have an invincible aversion to caterpillars and worms of every species: there is something disagreeable in their slow crawling motion, for which the variety of their colouring can never compensate. But others feel no repugnance at observing, and even handling, them with the most attentive application.

There is nothing in the butterfly-state so beautiful or splendid as these insects. They serve, not less than the birds themselves, to banish solitude from our walks, and to fill up our idle intervals with the most pleasing speculations. The butterfly makes one of the principal ornaments of oriental poetry; but in those countries, the insect is larger and more beautiful than with us.

The beauties of the fly may, therefore, very well excite our curiosity to examine the reptile. But we are still more strongly attached to this tribe from the usefulness of one of the number. The silk-worm is, perhaps, the most serviceable of all other animals; since, from its labours, and the manufacture attending it, near a third part of the world are clothed, adorned, and supported.

Caterpillars may be easily distinguished from worms or maggots, by the number of their feet; and by their producing

butterflies or moths. When the sun calls up vegetation, and vivifies the various eggs of insects, the caterpillars are the first that are seen upon almost every vegetable and tree, eating its leaves, and preparing for a state of greater perfection. They have feet both before and behind; which not only enable them to move forward by a sort of steps made by their fore and hinder parts, but also to climb up vegetables, and to stretch themselves out from the boughs and stalks to reach their food at a distance. All of this class have from eight feet, at the least, to sixteen; and this may serve to distinguish them from the worm-tribe, that never have so many. The animal into which they are converted is always a butterfly or moth; and these are always distinguished from other flies, by having their wings covered over with a painted dust, which gives them such various beauty. The wings of flies are transparent, as we see in the common flesh-fly; while those of beetles are hard, like horn: from such, the wing of a butterfly may be easily distinguished; and words would obscure their differences.

From hence it appears, that caterpillars, whether in the reptile state, or advanced to their last state of perfection into butterflies, may easily be distinguished from all other insects; being animals peculiarly formed, and also of a peculiar nature. The transmutations they undergo are also more numerous than those of any insect hitherto mentioned; and, in consequence, they have been placed in the third order of changes by Swammerdam, who has thrown such lights upon this part of natural history. In the second order of changes, mentioned before, we saw the grasshopper and the earwig, when excluded from the egg, assume a form very like that which they were after to preserve; and seemed arrived at a state of perfection, in all respects, except in not having wings; which did not bud forth until they were come to maturity. But the insects of this third order, that we are now about to describe, go through a much greater variety of transformations; for when they are excluded from the egg, they assume the form of a small caterpillar, which feeds and grows larger every day, often changing its skin, but still preserving its form. When the animal has come to a certain magnitude in this state it discontinues eating, makes itself a covering or husk, in which it remains wrapped up, seemingly without life or motion; and after having, for some time,

continued in this state, it once more bursts its confinement, and comes forth a beautiful butterfly. Thus we see this animal put on no less than three different appearances from the time it is first excluded from the egg. It appears a crawling caterpillar; then an insensible aurelia, as it is called, without life or motion; and, lastly, a butterfly, variously painted, according to its different kind. Having thus distinguished this class of insects from all others, we will first survey their history in general; and then enter particularly into the manners and nature of a few of them, which most deserve our curiosity and attention.

CHAP. II.

OF THE TRANSFORMATION OF THE CATERPILLAR INTO ITS CORRESPONDING BUTTERFLY OR MOTH.

WHEN winter has disrobed the trees of their leaves, Nature then seems to have lost her insects. There are thousands of different kinds, with and without wings, which, though swarming at other seasons, then entirely disappear. Our fields are re-peopled, when the leaves begin to bud, by the genial influence of spring; and caterpillars, of various sorts, are seen feeding upon the promise of the year, even before the leaves are completely unfolded. Those caterpillars, which we then see, may serve to give us a view of the general means, which Nature employs to preserve such a number of insects during that season, when they can no longer find subsistence. It is known, by united experience, that all these animals are hatched from the eggs of butterflies; and those who observe them more closely, will find the fly very careful in depositing its eggs, in those places, where they are likely to be hatched, with the greatest safety and success. During winter, therefore, the greatest number of caterpillars are in an egg-state; and in this lifeless situation brave all the rigours and the humidity of the climate; and though often exposed to all its changes, still preserve the latent principles of life, which is more fully exerted at the approach

of spring. That same power that pushes forth the budding leaf and the opening flower, impels the insect into animation; and Nature at once seems to furnish the guest and the banquet. When the insect has found force to break its shell, it always finds its favourite aliment provided in abundance before it.

But all caterpillars are not sent off from the egg in the beginning of spring; for many of them have subsisted during the winter in their aurelia state; in which, as we have briefly observed above, the animal is seemingly deprived of life and motion. In this state of insensibility, many of these insects continue during the rigours of winter; some inclosed in a kind of shell, which they have spun for themselves at the end of autumn; some concealed under the bark of trees; others in the chinks of old walls; and many buried under ground. From all these, a variety of butterflies are seen to issue in the beginning of spring; and adorn the earliest part of the year with their painted flutterings.

Some caterpillars do not make any change whatsoever at the approach of winter; but continue to live in their reptile state through all the severity of the season. They choose themselves some retreat, where they may remain undisturbed for months together; and there they continue motionless, and as insensible as if they were actually dead. Their constitution is such, that food at that time would be useless; and the cold prevents their making those dissipations which require restoration. In general, caterpillars of this kind are found in great numbers together, inclosed in one common web, that covers them all, and serves to protect them from the injuries of the air.

Lastly, there are some of the caterpillar kind, whose butterflies live all the winter; and who, having fluttered about for some part of the latter end of autumn, seek for some retreat during the winter, in order to answer the ends of propagation at the approach of spring. These are often found lifeless and motionless in the hollows of trees or the clefts of timber; but by being approached to the fire, they recover life and activity, and seem to anticipate the desires of the spring.

In general, however, whether the animal has subsisted in an egg state, during the winter; or whether as a butter-

fly, bred from an aurelia, in the beginning of spring; or a butterfly that has subsisted during the winter, and lays eggs as soon as the leaves of plants are shot forward; the whole swarm of caterpillars are in motion to share the banquet that Nature has provided. There is scarcely a plant that has not its own peculiar insects; and some are known to support several of different kinds. Of these, many are hatched from the egg, at the foot of the tree, and climb up to its leaves for subsistence; the eggs of others have been glued by the parent butterfly to the leaves; and they are no sooner excluded from the shell, but they find themselves in the midst of plenty.

When the caterpillar first bursts from the egg, it is small and feeble; its appetites are in proportion to its size, and it seems to make no great consumption; but as it increases in magnitude, it improves in its appetites; so that, in its adult caterpillar state, it is the most ravenous of all animals whatsoever. A single caterpillar will eat double its own weight of leaves in a day, and yet seems no way disordered by the meal. What would mankind do, if their oxen or their horses were so voracious?

These voracious habits, with its slow crawling motion, but still more a stinging like that of nettles, which follows upon handling the greatest number of them, make these insects not the most agreeable objects of human curiosity. However, there are many philosophers who have spent years in their contemplation; and who have not only attended to their habits and labours, but minutely examined their structure and internal conformation.

The body of the caterpillar, when anatomically considered, is found composed of rings, whose circumference is pretty near circular or oval. They are generally twelve in number, and are all membranaceous; by which caterpillars may be distinguished from many other insects, that nearly resemble them in form. The head of the caterpillar is connected to the first ring by the neck; that is generally so short and contracted, that it is scarce visible. All the covering of the head in caterpillars seems to consist of a shell; and they have neither upper nor under jaw, for they are both placed rather vertically, and each jaw armed with a large thick tooth, which is singly equal to numbers. With these the animals devour their food in such amazing

quantities ; and with these, some of the kind defend themselves against their enemies. Though the mouth be kept shut, the teeth are always uncovered ; and while the insect is in health they are seldom without employment. Whatever the caterpillar devours, these teeth serve to chop it into small pieces, and render the parts of the leaf fit for swallowing. Many kinds, while they are yet young, eat only the succulent part of the leaf, and leave all the fibres untouched ; others, however, attack the whole leaf, and eat it clean away. One may be amused, for a little time, in observing the avidity with which they are seen to feed ; some are seen eating the whole day ; others have their hours of repast ; some choose the night, and others the day. When the caterpillar attacks a leaf, it places its body in such a manner that the edge of the leaf shall fall between its feet, which keeps it steady while the teeth are employed in cutting it : these fall upon the leaf somewhat in the manner of a pair of gardener's shears ; and every morsel is swallowed as soon as cut. Some caterpillars feed upon leaves so very narrow, that they are not broader than their mouths ; in this case the animal is seen to devour it from the point, as we would eat a radish.

As there are various kinds of caterpillars, the number of their feet are various ; some having eight, and some sixteen. Of these feet the six foremost are covered with a sort of shining gristle ; and are therefore called the shelly legs. The hindmost feet, whatever be their number, are soft and flexible, and are called membranaceous. Caterpillars also, with regard to their external figure, are either smooth or hairy. The skin of the first kind is soft to the touch, or hard like shagreen ; the skin of the latter is hairy, and as it were thorny ; and generally, if handled, stings like nettles. Some of them even cause this stinging pain if but approached too nearly.

Caterpillars, in general, have six small black spots placed on the circumference of the fore ring, and a little to the side of the head. Three of these are larger than the rest, and are convex and transparent : these Reaumur takes to be the eyes of the caterpillar ; however, most of these reptiles have very little occasion for sight, and seem only to be directed by their feeling.

But the parts of the caterpillar's body which most justly

demand our attention, are the stigmata, as they are called ; or those holes on the sides of its body, through which the animal is supposed to breathe. All along this insect's body, on each side, these holes are easily discoverable. They are eighteen in number, nine on a side, rather nearer the belly than the back ; a hole for every ring, of which the animal's body is composed, except the second, the third, and the last. These oval openings may be considered as so many mouths, through which the insect breaths ; but with this difference, that as we have but one pair of lungs, the caterpillar has no less than eighteen. It requires no great anatomical dexterity to discover these lungs in the larger kind of caterpillars : they appear, at first view, to be hollow cartilaginous tubes, and of the colour of mother-of-pearl. These tubes are often seen to unite with each other ; some are perceived to open into the intestines ; and some go to different parts of the surface of the body. That these vessels serve to convey the air, appears evidently, from the famous experiment of Malpighi ; who, by stopping up the mouths of the stigmata with oil, quickly suffocated the animal, which was seen to die convulsed the instant after. In order to ascertain his theory, he rubbed oil upon other parts of the insect's body, leaving the stigmata free ; and this seemed to have no effect upon the animal's health, but it continued to move and eat as usual : he rubbed oil on the stigmata of one side, and the animal underwent a partial convulsion, but recovered soon after. However, it ought to be observed, that air is not so necessary to these as to the nobler ranks of animals, since caterpillars will live in an exhausted receiver for several days together ; and though they seem dead at the bottom, yet, when taken out, recover, and resume their former vivacity.

If the caterpillar be cut open longitudinally along the back, its intestines will be perceived running directly in a straight line from the mouth to the anus. They resemble a number of small bags opening into each other ; and strengthened on both sides by a fleshy cord, by which they are united. These insects are, upon many occasions, seen to cast forth the internal coat of their intestines with their food, in the changes which they so frequently undergo. But the intestines take up but a small part of the animal's body, if compared to the fatty substance in which they are

involved. This substance changes its colour when the insect's metamorphosis begins to approach; and from white it is usually seen to become yellow. If to these parts we add the caterpillar's implements for spinning, (for all caterpillars spin at one time or another,) we shall have a rude sketch of this animal's conformation: however, we shall reserve the description of those parts, till we come to the history of the silk-worm, where the manner in which these insects spin their webs, will most properly find a place.

The life of a caterpillar seems one continued succession of changes, and it is seen to throw off one skin only to assume another; which also is divested in its turn: and thus for eight or ten times successively. We must not, however, confound this changing of the skin with the great metamorphosis which it is afterwards to undergo. The throwing off one skin, and assuming another, seems, in comparison, but a slight operation among these animals: this is but the work of a day; the other is the great adventure of their lives. Indeed, this faculty of changing the skin, is not peculiar to caterpillars only, but is common to all the insect kind; and even to some animals that claim a higher rank in nature. We have already seen the lobster and the crab outgrowing their first shells, and then bursting from their confinement, in order to assume a covering more roomy and convenient. It is probable that the louse, the flea, and the spider, change their covering from the same necessity; and growing too large for the crust in which they have been for some time enclosed, burst it for another. This period is probably that of their growth; for as soon as their new skin is hardened round them, the animal's growth is necessarily circumscribed, while it remains within it. With respect to caterpillars, many of them change their skins five or six times in a season; and this covering, when cast off, often seems so complete, that many might mistake the empty skin for the real insect. Among the hairy caterpillars, for instance, the cast skin is covered with hair; the feet, as well gristly as membranous, remain fixed to it; even the parts which nothing but a microscope can discover, are visible in it; in short, all the parts of the head; not only the skull, but the teeth.

In proportion as the time approaches in which the caterpillar is to cast its old skin, its colours become more feeble,

the skin seems to wither and grow dry, and in some measure resembles a leaf, when it is no longer supplied with moisture from the stock. At that time, the insect begins to find itself under a necessity of changing; and it is not effected without violent labour, and perhaps pain. A day or two before the critical hour approaches, the insect ceases to eat, loses its usual activity, and seems to rest immoveable. It seeks some place to remain in security; and no longer timorous, seems regardless even of the touch. It is now and then seen to bend itself and elevate its back; again it stretches to its utmost extent: it sometimes lifts up the head, and then lets it fall again; it sometimes waves it three or four times from side to side, and then remains in quiet. At length, some of the rings of its body, particularly the first and second, are seen to swell considerably, the old skin distends and bursts, till, by repeated swellings and contractions in every ring, the animal disengages itself, and creeps from its inconvenient covering.

How laborious soever this operation may be, it is performed in the space of a minute; and the animal, having thrown off its old skin, seems to enjoy new vigour, as well as acquired colouring and beauty. Sometimes it happens that it takes a new appearance, and colours very different from the old. Those that are hairy still preserve their covering; although their ancient skin seems not to have lost a single hair: every hair appears to have been drawn like a sword from the scabbard. However, the fact is, that a new crop of hair grows between the old skin and the new, and probably helps to throw off the external covering.

The caterpillar having in this manner continued for several days feeding, and at intervals casting its skin, begins at last to prepare for its change into an aurelia. It is most probable that, from the beginning, all the parts of the butterfly lay hid in this insect, in its reptile state; but it required time to bring them to perfection; and a large quantity of food, to enable the animal to undergo all the changes requisite for throwing off these skins, which seemed to clog the butterfly form. However, when the caterpillar has fed sufficiently, and the parts of the future butterfly have formed themselves beneath its skin, it is then time for it to make its first great and principal change into an aure-

lia, or a chrysalis, as some have chosen to call it; during which, as was observed, it seems to remain for several days, or even months, without life or motion.

Preparatory to this important change, the caterpillar most usually quits the plant, or the tree on which it fed; or at least attaches itself to the stalk or the stem, more gladly than the leaves. It forsakes its food, and prepares, by fasting, to undergo its transmutation. In this period, all the food it has taken is thoroughly digested; and it often voids even the internal membrane which lined its intestines.

Some of this tribe, at this period also, are seen entirely to change colour; and the vivacity of the tints, in all, seems faded. Those of them which are capable of spinning themselves a web, set about this operation; those which have already spun, await the change in the best manner they are able. The web or cone, with which some cover themselves, hides the aurelia contained within from the view; but in others, where it is more transparent, the caterpillar, when it has done spinning, strikes into it the claws of the two feet under the tail, and afterwards forces in the tail itself, by contracting those claws, and violently striking the feet one against the other. If, however, they be taken from their web at this time, they appear in a state of great languor; and, incapable of walking, remain on that spot where they are placed. In this condition they remain one or two days, preparing to change into an aurelia; somewhat in the manner they made preparations for changing their skin. They then appear with their bodies bent into a bow, which they now and then are seen to straighten: they make no use of their legs; but if they attempt to change place, do it by the contortions of their body. In proportion as their change into an aurelia approaches, their body becomes more and more bent; while their extensions and convulsive contractions become more frequent. The hinder end of the body is the part which the animal first disengages from its caterpillar skin; that part of the skin remains empty, while the body is drawn up contractedly towards the head. In the same manner they disengage themselves from the two succeeding rings; so that the animal is then lodged entirely in the fore part of its caterpillar covering: that half which is abandoned, remains flaccid and empty; while the fore

part, on the contrary, is swollen and distended. The animal, having thus quitted the hinder part of its skin, to drive itself up into the forepart, still continues to heave and work as before; so that the skull is soon seen to burst into three pieces, and a longitudinal opening is made in the three first rings of the body, through which the insect thrusts forth its naked body with strong efforts. Thus at last it entirely gets free from its caterpillar skin, and for ever forsakes its most odious reptile form.

The caterpillar, thus stripped of its skin for the last time, is now become an aurelia; in which the parts of the future butterfly are all visible; but in so soft a state, that the smallest touch can discompose them. The animal is now become helpless and motionless; but only waits for the assistance of the air to dry up the moisture on its surface, and supply it with a crust capable of resisting external injuries. Immediately after being stripped of its caterpillar skin, it is of a green colour, especially in those parts which are distended by an extraordinary afflux of animal moisture; but in 10 or 12 hours after being thus exposed, its parts harden, the air forms its external covering into a firm crust, and in about four and twenty hours the aurelia may be handled, without endangering the little animal that is thus left in so defenceless a situation. Such is the history of the little pod or cone that is found so common by every pathway, sticking to nettles, and sometimes shining like polished gold. From the beautiful and resplendent colour, with which it is thus sometimes adorned, some authors have called it a *Chrysalis*, implying a creature made of gold.

Such are the efforts by which these little animals prepare for a state of perfection; but their care is still greater to provide themselves a secure retreat, during this season of their imbecility. It would seem like erecting themselves a monument, where they were to rest secure, until Nature had called them into a new and more improved existence. For this purpose, some spin themselves a cone or web, in which they lie secure till they have arrived at maturity: others, that cannot spin so copious a covering, suspend themselves by the tail, in some retreat where they are not likely to meet disturbances. Some mix sand with their gummy and moist webs, and thus make themselves a secure incrustation; while others, before their change, bury

themselves in the ground, and thus avoid the numerous dangers that might attend them. One would imagine that they were conscious of the precise time of their continuance in their aurelia state; since their little sepulchres, with respect to the solidity of the building, are proportioned to such duration. Those that are to lie in that state of existence but a few days, make choice of some tender leaf, which they render still more pliant by diffusing a kind of glue upon it: the leaf thus gradually curls up, and withering as it enfolds, the insect wraps itself within, as in a mantle, till the genial warmth of the sun enables it to struggle for new life, and burst from its confinement. Others, whose time of transformation is also near at hand, fasten their tails to a tree, or to the first worm-hole they meet in a beam, and wait in that defenceless situation. Such caterpillars, on the other hand, as are seen to lie several months in their aurelia state, act with much greater circumspection. Most of them mix their web with sand, and thus make themselves a strong covering: others build in wood, which serves them in the nature of a coffin. Such as have made the leaves of willows their favourite food, break the tender twigs of them first into small-pieces, then pound them as it were to powder; and, by means of their glutinous silk, make a kind of paste, in which they wrap themselves up. Many are the forms which these animals assume in this helpless state; and it often happens, that the most deformed butterflies issue from the most beautiful aurelias.

In general, however, the aurelia takes the rude outline of the parts of the animal which is contained within it; but as to the various colours which it is seen to assume, they are rather the effect of accident; for the same species of insect does not at all times assume the same hue, when it becomes an aurelia. In some, the beautiful gold colour is at one time found; in others, it is wanting. This brilliant hue, which does not fall short of the best gilding, is formed in the same manner in which we see leather obtain a gold colour, though none of that metal ever enters into the tincture. It is only formed by a beautiful brown varnish, laid upon a white ground; and the white thus gleaming through the transparency of the brown, gives a charming golden yellow. These two colours are found, one over the other, in the aurelia of the little animal we are

describing; and the whole appears gilded without any real gilding.

The aurelia thus formed, and left to time to expand, into a butterfly, in some measure resembles an animal in an egg, that is to wait for external warmth to hatch it into life and vigour. As the quantity of moisture, that is inclosed within the covering of the aurelia, continues to keep its body in the most tender state, so it is requisite that this humidity should be dried away, before the little butterfly can burst its prison. Many have been the experiments to prove that nature may in this respect be assisted by art; and that the life of the insect may be retarded or quickened, without doing it the smallest injury. For this purpose, it is only requisite to continue the insect in its aurelia state, by preventing the evaporation of his humidity; which will consequently add some days, nay weeks, to its life: on the other hand, by evaporating its moisture in a warm situation, the animal assumes its winged state before its usual time, and goes through the offices assigned its existence. To prove this, Mr. Reaumur inclosed the aurelia in a glass tube; and found the evaporated water, which exhaled from the body of the insect, collected in drops at the bottom of the tube: he covered the aurelia with varnish; and this making the evaporation more difficult and slow, the butterfly was two months longer than its natural term, in coming out of its case: he found, on the other hand, that by laying the animal in a warm room, he hastened the disclosure of the butterfly; and by keeping it in an ice-house, in the same manner he delayed it. Warmth acted, in this case, in a double capacity; invigorating the animal, and evaporating the moisture.

The aurelia, though it bears a different external appearance, nevertheless contains within it all the parts of the butterfly in perfect formation; and lying each in a very orderly manner though in the smallest compass. These, however are so fast and tender, that it is impossible to visit without discomposing them. When either by warmth, or increasing vigour, the parts have acquired the necessary force and solidity, the butterfly then seeks to disembarass itself of those bands which kept it so long in confinement. Some insects continue under the form of an aurelia not above ten days; some twenty; some several months; and even for a year together.

The butterfly, however, does not continue so long under the form of an aurelia, as one would be apt to imagine. In general those caterpillars that provide themselves with cones, continue within them but a few days after the cone is completely finished. Some, however, remain buried in this artificial covering for eight or nine months, without taking the smallest sustenance during the whole time: and though in the caterpillar state no animals were so voracious, when thus transformed they appear a miracle of abstinence. In all, sooner or later, the butterfly bursts from its prison; not only that natural prison which is formed by the skin of the aurelia, but also from that artificial one of silk, or any other substance in which it has enclosed itself.

The efforts which the butterfly makes to get free from its aurelia state, are by no means so violent as those which the insect had in changing from the caterpillar into the aurelia. The quantity of moisture surrounding the butterfly is by no means so great as that attending its former change; and the shell of the aurelia is so dry, that it may be cracked between the fingers.

If the animal be shut up within a cone, the butterfly always gets rid of the natural internal skin of the aurelia, before it eats its way through the external covering which its own industry has formed round it. In order to observe the manner in which it thus gets rid of the aurelia covering, we must cut open the cone, and then we shall have an opportunity of discovering the insect's efforts to emancipate itself from its natural shell. When this operation begins, there seems to be a violent agitation in the humours contained within the little animal's body. Its fluids seem driven, by an hasty fermentation, through all the vessels; while it labours violently with its legs, and makes several other violent struggles to get free. As all these motions concur with the growth of the insect's wings and body, it is impossible that the brittle skin which covers it should longer resist: it at length gives way, by bursting into four distinct and regular pieces. The skin of the head and legs first separates; then the skin at the back flies open, and dividing into two regular portions, disengages the back and wings: then there likewise happens another rupture, in that portion which covered the rings of the back of the aurelia. After this, the butterfly, as if fatigued with its struggles, remains very quiet

for some time, with its wings pointed downwards, and its legs fixed in the skin which it had just thrown off. At first sight the animal, just set free, and permitted the future use of its wings, seems to want them entirely; they take up such little room, that one would wonder where they were hidden. But soon after they expand so rapidly, that the eye can scarce attend their unfolding. From reaching scarce half the length of the body, they acquire, in a most wonderful manner, their full extent and bigness, so as to be each five times larger than they were before. Nor is it the wings alone that are thus increased; all their spots and paintings, before so minute as to be scarce discernible, are proportionably extended; so that what a few minutes before seemed only a number of confused unmeaning points, now become distinct and most beautiful ornaments. Nor are the wings, when they are thus expanded, unfolded in the manner in which earwigs and grasshoppers display theirs, who unfurl them like a lady's fan: on the contrary, those of butterflies actually grow to their natural size in this very short space. The wing, at the instant it is freed from its late confinement, is considerably thicker than afterwards; so that it spreads in all its dimensions, growing thinner as it becomes broader. If one of the wings be plucked from the animal just set free, it may be spread by the fingers, and it will soon become as broad as the other which has been left behind. As the wings extend themselves so suddenly, they have not yet had time to dry; and accordingly appear like pieces of wet paper, soft and full of wrinkles. In about half an hour they are perfectly dry, their wrinkles entirely disappear, and the little animal assumes all its splendour. The transmutation being thus perfectly finished, the butterfly discharges three or four drops of a blood-coloured liquid, which are the last remains of its superfluous moisture.* Those aurelias which are enclosed within a cone, find that

* These red drops, which several of the Butterfly tribe discharge immediately upon their transformation, have been recorded by ancient writers, as showers of blood, portending some convulsion of nature, or national calamity. In the year 1603, the inhabitants of the town of Aix were in the utmost consternation, in consequence of a discharge of this kind, which fell in the suburbs, and for some miles round. But the philosopher Pieresc soon quieted their alarms, by shewing them that the whole of this wonder originated in a flight of harmless butterflies, that had just taken wing from their chrysalis state.

exit more difficult, as they have still another prison to break through : this, however, they perform in a short time ; for the butterfly, freed from its aurelia skin, butts with its head violently against the walls of its artificial prison ; and probably with its eyes, that are rough and like a file, it rubs the internal surface away ; till it is at last seen bursting its way into open light ; and, in less than a quarter of an hour, the animal acquires its full perfection.

Thus, to use the words of Swammerdam, we see a little insignificant creature distinguished, in its last birth, with qualifications and ornaments, which man, during his stay upon earth, can never even hope to acquire. The butterfly, to enjoy life, needs no other food but the dews of heaven, and the honeyed juices which are distilled from every flower. The pageantry of princes cannot equal the ornaments with which it is invested ; nor the rich colouring that embellishes its wings. The skies are the butterfly's proper habitation, and the air is its element : whilst man comes into the world naked, and often roves about without habitation or shelter ; exposed on one hand to the heat of the sun, and on the other to the damps and exhalations of the earth ; both alike enemies of his happiness and existence. A strong proof that, while this little animal is raised to its greatest height, we are as yet in this world only candidates for perfection !

CHAP. III.

OF BUTTERFLIES AND MOTHS.

It has been already shewn, that all butterflies are bred from caterpillars ; and we have exhibited the various circumstances of that surprising change. It has been remarked, that butterflies may be easily distinguished from flies of every other kind, by their wings : for, in others, they are either transparent, like gauze, as we see in the common flesh-fly ; or they are hard and crusted, as we see in the wings of the beetle. But in the butterfly, the wings are soft,

opaque, and painted over with a beautiful dust, that comes off with handling.

The number of these beautiful animals is very great; and though Linnæus has reckoned up above seven hundred and sixty different kinds, the catalogue is still very incomplete. Every collector of butterflies can shew undescribed species: and such as are fond of minute discovery can here produce animals that have been examined only by himself. In general, however, those of the warm climates are larger and more beautiful than such as are bred at home; and we can easily admit the beauty of the butterfly, since we are thus freed from the damage of the caterpillar. It has been the amusement of some to collect these animals from different parts of the world; or to breed them from caterpillars at home. These they arrange in systematic order, or dispose so as to make striking and agreeable pictures; and all must grant, that this specious idleness is far preferable to that unhappy state which is produced by a total want of employment.

The wings of butterflies, as was observed, fully distinguish them from flies of every other kind. They are four in number; and though two of them be cut off, the animal can fly with the two others remaining. They are, in their own substance, transparent; but owe their opacity to the beautiful dust with which they are covered; and which has been likened, by some naturalists, to the feathers of birds; by others, to the scales of fishes; as their imaginations were disposed to catch the resemblance. In fact, if we regard the wing of a butterfly with a good microscope, we shall perceive it studded over with a variety of little grains of different dimensions and forms, generally supported upon a footstalk, regularly laid upon the whole surface. Nothing can exceed the beautiful and regular arrangement of these little substances; which thus serve to paint the butterfly's wing, like the tiles of a house. Those of one rank are a little covered by those that follow: they are of many figures; on one part of the wing may be seen a succession of oval studs; on another part, a cluster of studs, each in the form of a heart: in one place they resemble a hand open; and in another they are long or triangular; while all are interspersed with taller studs, that grow between the rest, like mushrooms upon a stalk. The wing itself is composed

of several thick nerves, which render the construction very strong, though light; and though it be covered over with thousands of these scales or studs, yet its weight is very little increased by the number. The animal is with ease enabled to support itself a long while in air, although its flight be not very graceful. When it designs to fly to a considerable distance, it ascends and descends alternately; going sometimes to the right, sometimes to the left, without any apparent reason. Upon closer examination, however, it will be found that it flies thus irregularly in pursuit of its mate; and as dogs bait and quarter the ground in pursuit of their game, so these insects traverse the air in quest of their mates, whom they can discover at more than a mile's distance.

If we prosecute our description of the butterfly, the animal may be divided into three parts; the head, the corselet, and the body.

The body is the hinder part of the butterfly, and is composed of rings, which are generally concealed under long hair, with which that part of the animal is clothed. The corselet is more solid than the rest of the body, because the forewings and the legs are fixed therein. The legs are six in number, although four only are made use of by the animal; the two forelegs being often so much concealed in the long hair of the body, that it is sometimes difficult to discover them. If we examine these parts internally, we shall find the same set of vessels in the butterfly that we observed in the caterpillar; but with this great difference, that as the blood or humours in the caterpillar circulated from the tail to the head, they are found in the butterfly to take a direct contrary course, and to circulate from the head to the tail; so that the caterpillar may be considered as the embryo animal, in which, as we have formerly seen, the circulation is carried on differently from what it is in animals when excluded.

But leaving the other parts of the butterfly, let us turn our attention particularly to the head. The eyes of butterflies have not all the same form; for in some they are large, in others small; in some they are the larger portion of a sphere, in others they are but a small part of it, and just appearing from the head. In all of them, however, the outward coat has a lustre, in which may be discovered the

various colours of the rainbow. When examined a little closely, it will be found to have the appearance of a multiplying-glass; having a great number of sides or facets, in the manner of a brilliant cut diamond. In this particular, the eye of the butterfly, and of most other insects, entirely correspond; and Leuwenhoek pretends there are about six thousand facets on the cornea of the flea. These animals, therefore, see not only with great clearness, but view every object multiplied in a surprising manner. Puget adapted the cornea of a fly in such a position as to see objects through it by the means of a microscope; and nothing could exceed the strangeness of its representations. A soldier, who was seen through it, appeared like an army of pigmies; for while it multiplied, it also diminished the object; the arch of a bridge exhibited a spectacle more magnificent than human skill could perform; the flame of a candle seemed a beautiful illumination. It still, however, remains a doubt, whether the insect sees objects singly, as with one eye; or whether every facet is itself a complete eye, exhibiting its own object distinct from all the rest.

Butterflies, as well as most other flying insects, have two instruments, like horns, on their heads, which are commonly called feelers. They differ from the horns of greater animals, in being moveable at their base; and in having a great number of joints, by which means the insect is enabled to turn them in every direction. Those of butterflies are placed at the top of the head, pretty near the external edge of each eye. What the use of these instruments may be, which are thus formed with so much art, and by a WORKMAN who does nothing without reason, is as yet unknown to man. They may serve to guard the eye; they may be of use to clean it; or they may be the organ of some sense which we are ignorant of: but this is only explaining one difficulty by another. We are not so ignorant of the uses of the trunk, which few insects of the butterfly kind are without. This instrument is placed exactly between the eyes; and when the animal is not employed in seeking its nourishment, it is rolled up like a curl. A butterfly, when it is feeding, flies round some flower, and settles upon it. The trunk is then uncurled, and thrust out either wholly or in part; and is employed in search-

ing the flower to its very bottom, let it be ever so deep. This search being repeated seven or eight times, the butterfly then passes to another; and continues to hover over those agreeable to its taste, like a bird over its prey. This trunk consists of two equal hollow tubes, nicely joined to each other, like the pipes of an organ.

Such is the figure and conformation of these beautiful insects, that cheer our walks, and give us the earliest intimations of summer. But it is not by day alone that they are seen fluttering wantonly from flower to flower, as the greatest number of them fly by night, and expand the most beautiful colouring at those hours when there is no spectator. This tribe of insects has, therefore, been divided into Diurnal and Nocturnal Flies; or, more properly speaking, into Butterflies and Moths: the one flying only by day, the other most usually on the wing in the night. They may be easily distinguished from each other by their horns or feelers: those of the butterfly being clubbed or knobbed at the end; those of the moth tapering finer and finer to a point. To express it technically—the feelers of butterflies are elavated: those of moths are filiform.

The butterflies, as well as the moths, employ the short life assigned them in a variety of enjoyments. Their whole time is spent either in quest of food, which every flower offers; or in pursuit of the female, whose approach they can often perceive at two miles' distance. Their sagacity in this particular is not less astonishing than true; but by what sense they are thus capable of distinguishing each other at such distances is not easy to conceive. It cannot be by the sight, since such small objects as they are, must be utterly imperceptible at half the distance at which they perceive each other: it can scarcely be by the sense of smelling, since the animal has no organs for that purpose. Whatever be their powers of perception, certain it is that the male, after having fluttered, as if carelessly about for some time, is seen to take wing, and go forward, sometimes for two miles together, in a direct line, to where the female is perched on a flower.

The general rule among insects is, that the female is larger than the male; and this obtains particularly in the tribe I am describing. The body of the male is smaller and slenderer; that of the female more thick and oval. Previous

to the junction of these animals, they are seen sporting in the air, pursuing and flying from each other, and preparing, by a mock combat, for the more important business of their lives. If they be disturbed while united, the female flies off with the male on her back, who seems entirely passive upon the occasion.

But the females of many moths and butterflies seem to have assumed their airy form for no other reason but to fecundate their eggs, and lay them. They are not seen fluttering about in quest of food or a mate: all that passes during their short lives, is a junction with the male of about half an hour; after which they deposit their eggs, and die, without taking any nourishment, or seeking any. It may be observed, however, that in all the females of this tribe, they are impregnated by the male by one aperture, and lay their eggs by another.

The eggs of female butterflies are disposed in the body like a bed of chaplets; which, when excluded, are usually oval, and of a whitish colour: some, however, are quite round; and others flatted like a turnip. The covering, or shell of the egg, though solid, is thin and transparent; and in proportion as the caterpillar grows within the egg, the colours change, and are distributed differently. The butterfly seems very well instructed by Nature in its choice of the plant, or the leaf, where it shall deposit its burthen. Each egg contains but one caterpillar; and it is requisite that this little animal, when excluded, should be near its peculiar provision. The butterfly, therefore, is careful to place her brood only upon those plants that afford good nourishment to its posterity. Though the little winged animal has been fed itself upon dew, or the honey of flowers, yet it makes choice for its young of a very different provision, and lays its eggs on the most unsavoury plants; the rag-weed, the cabbage, or the nettle. Thus every butterfly chooses not the plant most grateful to it in its winged state; but such as it has fed upon in its reptile form.

All the eggs of butterflies are attached to the leaves of the favourite plant, by a sort of size or glue; where they continue unobserved, unless carefully sought after. The eggs are sometimes placed round the tender shoots of plants, in the form of bracelets, consisting of above two hundred in each, and generally surrounding the shoot like a ring upon

a finger. Some butterflies secure their eggs from the injuries of air, by covering them with hair plucked from their own bodies, as birds sometimes are seen to make their nests; so that their eggs are thus kept warm, and also entirely concealed.

All the tribe of female moths lay their eggs a short time after they leave the aurelia; but there are many butterflies that flutter about the whole summer, and do not think of laying, till the winter begins to warn them of their approaching end: some even continue the whole winter in the hollows of trees, and do not provide for posterity until the beginning of April, when they leave their retreats, deposit their eggs, and die. Their eggs soon begin to feel the genial influence of the season: the little animals burst from them in their caterpillar state, to become aurelias and butterflies in their turn, and thus to continue the round of nature.

CHAP. IV.

OF THE ENEMIES OF THE CATERPILLAR.

NATURE, though it has rendered some animals surprisingly fruitful, yet ever takes care to prevent their too great increase. One set of creatures is generally opposed to another: and those are chiefly the most prolific that are, from their imbecility, incapable of making any effectual defence. The caterpillar has, perhaps, of all other animals, the greatest number of enemies; and seems only to exist by its surprising fecundity. Some animals devour them by hundreds; others more minute, yet more dangerous, mangle them in various ways: so that, how great soever their numbers may be, their destroyers are in equal proportion. Indeed, if we consider the mischiefs these reptiles are capable of occasioning, and the various damages we sustain from their insatiable rapacity, it is happy for the other ranks of nature, that there are thousands of fishes, birds, and even insects, that live chiefly upon caterpillars, and make them their most favourite repast.

When we described the little birds that live in our gardens, and near our houses, as destructive neighbours, sufficient attention was not paid to the services which they are

frequently found to render us. It has been proved, that a single sparrow and its mate, that have young ones, destroy above three thousand caterpillars in a week; not to mention several butterflies, in which numberless caterpillars are destroyed in embryo. It is in pursuit of these reptiles that we are favoured with the visits of many of our most beautiful songsters, that amuse us during their continuance, and leave us when the caterpillars disappear.

The maxim which has often been urged against man, that he, of all other animals, is the only creature that is an enemy to his own kind, and that the human species only are found to destroy each other, has been adopted by persons who never considered the history of insects. Some of the caterpillar kind in particular, that seem fitted only to live upon leaves and plants, will, however, eat each other; and the strongest will devour the weak in preference to their vegetable food. That which lives upon the oak is found to seize any of its companions, which it conveniently can, by the first rings, and inflict a deadly wound: it then feasts in tranquillity on its prey, and leaves nothing of the animal but the husk.

But it is not from each other they have the most to fear, as in general they are inoffensive; and many of this tribe are found to live in a kind of society. Many kinds of flies lay their eggs either upon, or within their bodies; and, as these turn into worms, the caterpillar is seen to nourish a set of intestine enemies within its body, that must shortly be its destruction: Nature having taught flies, as well as all other animals, the surest methods of perpetuating their kind.—“Towards the end of August,” says Reaumur, “I perceived a little fly, of a beautiful gold colour, busily employed in the body of a large caterpillar, of that kind which feeds upon cabbage. I gently separated that part of the leaf on which these insects were placed, from the rest of the plant, and placed it where I might observe them more at my ease. The fly, wholly taken up by the business in which it was employed, walked along the caterpillar’s body, now and then remaining fixed to a particular spot. Upon this occasion, I perceived it every now and then dart a sting, which it carried at the end of its tail, into the caterpillar’s body, and then drew it out again, to repeat the same operation in another place. It was not difficult for me to conjecture the

business which engaged this animal so earnestly; its whole aim was to deposit its eggs in the caterpillar's body; which was to serve as a proper retreat for bringing them to perfection. The reptile thus rudely treated, seemed to bear all very patiently, only moving a little when stung too deeply; which, however, the fly seemed entirely to disregard. I took particular care to feed this caterpillar; which seemed to me to continue as voracious and vigorous as any of the rest of its kind. In about ten or twelve days, it changed into an aurelia, which seemed gradually to decline, and died: upon examining its internal parts, the animal was entirely devoured by worms; which, however, did not come to perfection, as it is probable they had not enough to sustain them within."

What the French philosopher perceived upon this occasion is every day to be seen in several of the larger kinds of caterpillars, whose bodies serve as a nest to various flies, that very carefully deposit their eggs within them. The large cabbage caterpillar is so subject to its injuries, that, at certain seasons, it is much easier to find them with than without them. The ichneumon fly, as it is called, particularly infests these reptiles, and prevents their fecundity. This fly is of all others the most formidable to insects of various kinds. The spider, that destroys the ant, the moth, and the butterfly, yet often falls a prey to the ichneumon; who pursues the robber to his retreat, and, despising his nets, tears him in pieces, in the very labyrinth he has made. This insect, as redoubtable as the little quadruped that destroys the crocodile, has received the same name; and from its destruction of the caterpillar tribe, is probably more serviceable to mankind. This insect, I say, makes the body of the caterpillar the place for depositing its eggs, to the number of ten, fifteen, or twenty. As they are laid in those parts which are not mortal, the reptile still continues to live and to feed, shewing no signs of being incommoded by its new guests. The caterpillar changes its skin; and sometimes undergoes the great change into an aurelia: but still the fatal intruders work within, and secretly devour its internal substance: soon after they are seen bursting through its skin, and moving away, in order to spin themselves a covering, previous to their own little transformation. It is indeed astonishing sometimes to see the number of worms, and those pretty large,

that thus issue from the body of a single caterpillar and eat their way through its skin : but it is more extraordinary still that they should remain within the body, devouring its entrails, without destroying its life. The truth is, they seem instructed by nature not to devour its vital parts ; for they are found to feed only upon that fatty substance which composes the largest part of the caterpillar's body. When this surprising appearance was first observed, it was supposed that the animal thus gave birth to a number of flies different from itself ; and that the same caterpillar sometimes bred an ichneumon, and sometimes a butterfly : but it was not till after more careful inspection it was discovered, that the ichneumon tribe were not the caterpillars's offspring, but its murderers.

CHAP. V.

OF THE SILKWORM.

HAVING mentioned, in the last chapter, the damages inflicted by the caterpillar tribe, we now come to an animal of this kind, that alone compensates for all the mischief occasioned by the rest. This little creature, which only works for itself, has been made of the utmost service to man ; and furnishes him with a covering more beautiful than any other animal can supply. We may declaim indeed against the luxuries of the times, when silk is so generally worn ; but were such garments to fail, what other arts could supply the deficiency ?

Though silk was anciently brought in small quantities to Rome, yet it was so scarce as to be sold for its weight in gold ; and was considered as such a luxurious refinement in dress, that it was infamous for a man to appear in habits of which silk formed but half the composition. It was most probably brought among them from the remotest parts of the East ; since it was, at the time of which I am speaking, scarcely known even in Persia.

Nothing can be more remote from the truth than the manner in which their historians describe the animal by

which silk is produced. Pausanias informs us, that silk came from the country of the Seres, a people of Asiatic Scythia; in which place an insect as large as the beetle, but in every other respect resembling a spider, was bred up for that purpose. They take great care, as he assures us, to feed and defend it from the weather; as well during the summer's heat as the rigours of winter. This insect, he observes, makes its web with its feet, of which it has eight in number. It is fed for the space of four years upon a kind of paste, prepared for it; and at the beginning of the fifth, it is supplied with the leaves of the green willow, of which it is particularly fond. It then feeds till it bursts with fat; after which they take out its bowels, which are spun into the beautiful manufacture so scarce and costly.

The real history of this animal was unknown among the Romans till the time of Justinian; and it is supposed, that silkworms were not brought into Europe till the beginning of the twelfth century; when Roger, of Sicily, brought workmen in this manufacture from Asia Minor, after his return from his expedition to the Holy Land, and settled them in Sicily and Calabria. From these the other kingdoms of Europe learned this manufacture; and it is now one of the most lucrative carried on among the southern provinces of Europe.

The silkworm is now very well known to be a large caterpillar, of a whitish colour, with twelve feet, and producing a butterfly of the moth kind. The cone on which it spins, is formed for covering it while it continues in the aurelia state; and several of these, properly wound off, and united together, form those strong and beautiful threads which are woven into silk. The feeding these worms, the gathering, the winding, the twisting, and the weaving their silk, is one of the principal manufactures of Europe; and, as our luxuries increase, seems every day to become more and more necessary to human happiness.

There are two methods of breeding silkworms; for they may be left to grow, and to remain at liberty upon the trees where they are hatched; or they may be kept in a place built for that purpose, and fed every day with fresh leaves. The first method is used in China, Tonquin, and other hot countries; the other is used in those places where the animal has been artificially propagated, and still continues a

stranger. In the warm climates, the silkworm proceeds from an egg, which has been glued by the parent moth upon proper parts of the mulberry-tree, and which remains in that situation during the winter. The manner in which they are situated and fixed to the tree, keeps them unaffected by the influence of the weather; so that those frosts which are severe enough to kill the tree, have no power to injure the silkworm.

The insect never proceeds from the egg till Nature has provided it a sufficient supply; and till the budding leaves are furnished, in sufficient abundance, for its support. When the leaves are put forth, the worms seem to feel the genial summons, and bursting from their little eggs, crawl upon the leaves, where they feed with a most voracious appetite. Thus they become larger by degrees; and after some months' feeding, they lay, upon every leaf, small bundles or cones of silk, which appear like so many golden apples, painted on a fine green ground. Such is the method of breeding them in the East; and without doubt it is best for the worms, and least troublesome for the feeder of them. But it is otherwise in our colder European climates; the frequent changes of the weather, and the heavy dews of our evenings, render the keeping them all night exposed, subject to so many inconveniences, as to admit of no remedy. It is true, that, by the assistance of nets, they may be preserved from the insults of birds; but the severe cold weather, which often succeed the first heats of summer, as well as the rain and high winds, will destroy them all: and therefore, to breed them in Europe, they must be sheltered and protected from every external injury.

For this purpose, a room is chosen, with a south aspect; and the windows are so well glazed as not to admit the least air: the walls are well built, and the planks of the floor exceedingly close, so as to admit neither birds nor mice, nor even so much as an insect. In the middle there should be four pillars erected, or four wooden posts, so placed as to form a pretty large square. Between these are different stories made with osier hurdles; and under each hurdle there should be a floor with an upright border all round. These hurdles and floors must hang upon pullies, so as to be placed or taken down at pleasure.

When the worms are hatched, some tender mulberry leaves are provided, and placed in the cloth or paper-box in which the eggs were laid, and which are large enough to hold a great number. When they have acquired some strength, they must be distributed on beds of mulberry leaves, in the different stories of the square in the middle of the room, round which a person may freely pass on every side. They will fix themselves to the leaves, and afterwards to the sticks of the hurdles, when the leaves are devoured. They have then a thread, by which they can suspend themselves on occasion, to prevent any shock by a fall; but this is by no means to be considered as the silk which they spin afterwards in such abundance. Care must be taken that fresh leaves be brought every morning, which must be strewed very gently and equally over them; upon which, the silkworms will forsake the remainder of the old leaves, which must be carefully taken away, and every thing kept very clean; for nothing hurts these insects so much as moisture and uncleanliness. For this reason their leaves must be gathered when the weather is dry, and kept in a dry place, if it be necessary to lay in a store. As these animals have but a short time to live, they make use of every moment, and almost continually are spinning, except at those intervals when they change their skins. If mulberry leaves be difficult to be obtained, the leaves of lettuce, or holyoak will sustain them; but they do not thrive so well upon their new diet; and their silk will neither be so copious, nor of so good a quality.

Though the judicious choice and careful management of their diet is absolutely necessary, yet there is another precaution of equal importance; which is, to give them air, and open their chamber windows, at such times as the sun shines warmest. The place also must be kept as clean as possible; not only the several floors that are laid to receive their ordure, but the whole apartments in general. These things well observed, contribute greatly to their health and increase.

The worm, at the time it bursts the shell, is extremely small, and of a black colour; but the head is of a more shining black than the rest of the body: some days after, they begin to turn whitish, or of an ash-coloured grey. After the skin begins to grow too rigid, or the animal is stunted within it, the insect throws it off, and appears clothed

anew: it then becomes larger, and much whiter, though it has a greenish cast: after some days, which are more or less, according to the different heat of the climate, or to the quality of the food, it leaves off eating, and seems to sleep for two days together: then it begins to stir, and put itself into violent motions, till the skin falls off the second time, and is thrown aside by the animal's feet. All these changes are made in three weeks or a month's time; after which it begins to feed once more, still in its caterpillar form, but a good deal differing from itself before its change. In a few days' time it seems to sleep again; and, when it awakes, it again changes its clothing, and continues feeding as before. When it has thus taken a sufficiency of food, and its parts are disposed for assuming the aurelia form, the animal forsakes, for the last time, all food and society, and prepares itself a retreat to defend it from external injuries, while it is seemingly deprived of life and motion.

This retreat is no other than its cone, or ball of silk, which Nature has taught it to compose with great art; and within which it buries itself, till it assumes its winged form. This cone or ball is spun from too little longish kinds of bags that lie above the intestines, and are filled with a gummy fluid, of a marigold colour. This is the substance of which the threads are formed; and the little animal is furnished with a surprising apparatus for spinning it to the degree of fineness which its occasions may require. This instrument in some measure resembles a wire-drawer's machine, in which gold or silver threads are drawn to any degree of minuteness; and through this the animal draws its thread with great assiduity. As every thread proceeds from two gum-bags, it is probable that each supplies its own; which, however, are united, as they proceed from the animal's body. If we examine the thread with a microscope, it will be found that it is flatted on one side, and grooved along its length: from hence we may infer, that it is doubled just upon leaving the body; and that the two threads stick to each other by that gummy quality of which they are possessed. Previous to spinning its web, the silkworm seeks out some convenient place to erect its cell, without any obstruction. When it has found a leaf, or a chink fitted to its purpose, it begins to wreath its head in every direction, and fastens its thread on every side to the sides of its retreat.

Though all its first essays seem perfectly confused, yet they are not altogether without design : there appears, indeed, no order or contrivance in the disposal of its first threads : they are by no means laid artfully over each other, but are thrown out at random, to serve as an external shelter against rain ; for nature having appointed the animal to work upon trees in the open air, its habits remain, though it is brought up in a warm apartment.

Malpighi pretends to have observed six different layers in a single cone of silk : but what may easily be observed is, that it is composed externally of a kind of rough cotton-like substance, which is called floss ; within, the thread is more distinct and even ; and next the body of the aurelia, the apartment seems lined with a substance of the hardness of paper, but of a much stronger consistence. It must not be supposed, that the thread which goes to compose the cone, is rolled round, as we roll a bottom ; on the contrary, it lies upon it in a very irregular manner, and winds off now from one side of the cone, and then from the other. This whole thread, if measured, will be found about three hundred yards long ; and so very fine, that eight or ten of them are generally rolled off into one by the manufacturers. The cone, when completed, is in form like a pigeon's egg, and more pointed at one end than the other : at the smaller end, the head of the aurelia is generally found ; and this is the place that the insect, when converted into a moth, is generally seen to burst through.

It is generally a fortnight or three weeks before the aurelia is changed into a moth ; but no sooner is the winged insect completely formed, than having divested itself of its aurelia skin, it prepares to burst through its cone, or outward prison : for this purpose it extends its head towards the point of the cone, butts with its eyes, which are rough, against the lining of its cell, wears it away, and at last pushes forward, through a passage which is small at first, but which enlarges as the animal increases its efforts for emancipation ; while the tattered remnants of its aurelia skin lie in confusion within the cone, like a bundle of dirty linen

The animal, when thus set free from its double confinement, appears exhausted with fatigue, and seems produced for no other purpose but to transmit a future brood. It neither flies nor eats ; the male only seeking the female,

whose eggs he impregnates ; and their union continues for four days, without interruption. The male dies immediately after separation from his mate ; and she survives him only till she has laid her eggs, which are not hatched into worms till the ensuing spring.

However, there are few of these animals suffered to come to a state of maturity ; for as their bursting through the cone destroys the silk, the manufacturers take care to kill the aurelia, by exposing it to the sun, before the moth comes to perfection. This done, they take off the floss, and throw the cones into warm water, stirring them till the first thread offers them a clue for winding all off. They generally take eight of the silken threads together ; the cones being still kept under water, till a proper quantity of the silk is wound off : however, they do not take all ; for the latter parts grow weak, and are of a bad colour. As to the paper-like substance which remains, some stain it with a variety of colours, to make artificial flowers ; others let it lie in the water, till the glutinous matter which cements it is all dissolved : it is then carded like wool, spun with a wheel, and converted into silk stuffs of an inferior kind.

BOOK IV.

OF INSECTS OF THE FOURTH ORDER.

CHAP. I.

OF THE FOURTH ORDER OF INSECTS IN GENERAL.

IN the foregoing part we treated of caterpillars changing into butterflies; in the present will be given the history of grubs changing into their corresponding winged animals. These, like the former, undergo their transformation, and appear as grubs or maggots, as aurelias, and at last as winged insects. Like the former, they are bred from eggs; they feed in their reptile state; they continue motionless and lifeless, as aurelias; and fly and propagate, when furnished with wings. But they differ in many respects: the grub or maggot wants the number of feet which the caterpillar is seen to have; the aurelia is not so totally wrapped up, but that its feet and its wings appear. The perfect animal, when emancipated, also has its wings either cased, or transparent like gauze; not coloured with that beautifully painted dust which adorns the wings of the butterfly.

In this class of insects, therefore, we may place a various tribe, that are first laid as eggs, then are excluded as maggots or grubs, then change into aurelias, with their legs and wings not wrapped up, but appearing; and, lastly, assuming wings, in which state they propagate their kind. Some of these have four transparent wings, as bees; some have two membranous cases to their wings, as beetles; and some have but two wings, which are transparent, as ants. Here, therefore, we will place the bee, the wasp, the humble-bee, the ichneumon fly, the gnat, the tipula or longlegs, the beetle, the may-bug, the glow-worm, and the ant. The transformations which all these undergo, are pretty nearly similar; and though very different animals in form, are yet produced nearly in the same manner.

CHAP. II.

OF THE BEE.

To give a complete history of this insect in a few pages, which some have exhausted volumes in describing, and whose nature and properties still continue in dispute, is impossible. It will be sufficient to give a general idea of the animal's operations; which, though they have been studied for more than two thousand years, are still but incompletely known. The account given us by Reaumur is sufficiently minute; and, if true, sufficiently wonderful: but I find many of the facts which he relates, doubted by those who are most conversant with bees; and some of them actually declared not to have a real existence in nature.

It is unhappy, therefore, for those whose method demands a history of bees, that they are unfurnished with those materials which have induced so many observers to contradict so great a naturalist. His life was spent in the contemplation; and it requires an equal share of attention, to prove the error of his discoveries. Without entering, therefore, into the dispute, I will take him for my guide; and just mention, as I go along, those particulars in which succeeding observers have begun to think him erroneous. Which of the two are right, time only can discover; for my part, I have only heard one side, for as yet none have been so bold as openly to oppose Reaumur's delightful researches.

There are three different kinds of bees in every hive. First, the labouring bees, which make up the far greatest number, and are thought to be neither male nor female, but merely born for the purposes of labour, and continuing the breed, by supplying the young with provision, while yet in their helpless state. The second sort are the drones; they are of a darker colour, longer, and more thick by one-third than the former; they are supposed to be the males; and there is not above a hundred of them in a hive of seven or eight thousand bees. The third sort is much larger than either of the former, and still fewer in number; some assert that there is not above one in every swarm; but this later observers affirm not to be true, there being sometimes five or six in the same hive. These are called

bees, and are said to lay all the eggs from which the whole swarm is hatched in a season.

In examining the structure of the common working bee, the first remarkable part that offers is the trunk, which serves to extract the honey from flowers. It is not formed, like that of other flies, in the manner of a tube, by which the fluid is to be sucked up; but like a besom to sweep, or a tongue to lick it away. The animal is furnished also with teeth, which serve it in making wax. This substance is gathered from flowers, like honey; it consists of that dust or farina which contribute to the fecundation of plants, and is moulded into wax by the little animal at leisure. Every bee, when it leaves the hive to collect this precious store, enters into the cup of the flower, particularly such as seem charged with the greatest quantities of this yellow farina. As the animal's body is covered over with hair, it rolls itself within the flower, and soon becomes quite covered with the dust, which it soon after brushes off with its two hind-legs, and kneads into two little balls. In the thighs of the hind-legs there are two cavities, edged with hair, and into these, as into a basket, the animal sticks its pellets. Thus employed, the bee flies from flower to flower, increasing its store, and adding to its stock of wax; until the ball upon each thigh becomes as big as a grain of pepper: by this time, having got a sufficient load, it returns, making the best of its way to the hive.

The belly of the bee is divided into six rings, which sometimes shorten the body, by slipping one over the other. It contains within it, beside the intestines, the honey-bag, the venom-bag, and the sting. The honey-bag is as transparent as crystal, containing the honey that the bee has brushed from the flowers; of which the greater part is carried to the hive, and poured into the cells of the honey-comb, while the remainder serves for the bee's own nourishment; for, during summer, it never touches what has been laid up for winter. The sting which serves to defend this little animal from its enemies, is composed of three parts; the sheath and two darts, which are extremely small and penetrating. Both the darts have several small points or barbs, like those of a fish-hook, which render the sting more painful, and makes the darts rankle in the wound. Still, how-

ever, this instrument would be very slight, did not the poison the wound. The sheath, which has a sharp point, makes the first impression; which is followed by that of the darts, and then the venomous liquor is poured in. The sheath sometimes sticks so fast in the wound, that the animal is obliged to leave it behind; by which the bee soon after dies, and the wound is considerably inflamed. It might at first appear well for mankind, if the bee were without its sting; but upon recollection, it will be found, that the little animal would then have too many rivals in sharing its labours. A hundred other lazy animals, fond of honey, and hating labour, would intrude upon the sweets of the hive; and the treasure would be carried off for want of armed guardians to protect it.

From examining the bee singly, we now come to consider it in society, as an animal not only subject to laws, but active, vigilant, laborious, and disinterested. All its provisions are laid up for the community; and all its arts in building a cell, designed for the benefit of posterity. The substance with which bees build their cells is wax; which is fashioned into convenient apartments for themselves and their young. When they begin to work in their hives, they divide themselves into four companies: one of which roves in the fields in search of materials; another employs itself in laying out the bottom and partitions of their cells; a third is employed in making the inside smooth from the corners and angles; and the fourth company bring food for the rest, or relieve those who return with their respective burdens. But they are not kept constant to one employment; they often change the tasks assigned them: those that have been at work, being permitted to go abroad; and those that have been in the fields already, take their places. They seem even to have signs, by which they understand each other; for when any of them wants food, it bends down its trunk to the bee from whom it is expected, which then opens its honey-bag, and lets some drops fall into the other's mouth, which is at that time open to receive it. Their diligence and labour is so great, that in a day's time they are able to make cells, that lie upon each other, numerous enough to contain three thousand bees.

If we examine their cells, they will be found formed in the

exactest proportion. It was said by Pappus, an ancient geometrician, that of all other figures, hexagons were the most convenient; for when placed touching each other, the most convenient room would be given, and the smallest lost. The cells of the bees are perfect hexagons: these, in every honey-comb, are double, opening on either side, and closed at the bottom. The bottoms are composed of little triangular panes, which, when united together, terminate in a point, and lie exactly upon the extremities of other panes of the same shape, in opposite cells. These lodgings have spaces, like streets, between them, large enough to give the bees a free passage in and out; and yet narrow enough to preserve the necessary heat. The mouth of every cell is defended by a border, which makes the door a little less than the inside of the cell, which serves to strengthen the whole. These cells serve for different purposes: for laying up their young; for their wax, which in winter becomes a part of their food; and for their honey, which makes their principal subsistence.

It is well known that the habitation of bees ought to be very closé; and what their hives want, from the negligence or unskilfulness of man, these animals supply by their own industry: so that it is their principal care, when first lived, to stop up all the crannies. For this purpose they make use of a resinous gum, which is more tenacious than wax, and differs greatly from it. This the ancients called *propolis*: it will grow considerably hard in June; though it will in some measure soften by heat; and is often found different in consistence, colour, and smell. It has generally an agreeable aromatic odour when it is warmed; and by some it is considered as a most grateful perfume. When the bees begin to work with it, it is soft, but it acquires a firmer consistence every day; till at length it assumes a brown colour, and becomes much harder than wax. The bees carry it on their hinder legs; and some think it is met with on the birch, the willow, and poplar. However it is procured, it is certain that they plaster the inside of their hives with this composition.

If examined through a glass hive, from the hurry the whole swarm is in, the whole appears at first like anarchy and confusion; but the spectator soon finds every animal diligently employed, and following one pursuit, with a

settled purpose. Their teeth are the instruments by which they model and fashion their various buildings, and give them such symmetry and perfection. They begin at the top of the hive; and several of them work at a time, at the cells which have two faces. If they are stinted with regard to time, they give the new cells but half the depth which they ought to have; leaving them imperfect, till they have sketched out the number of cells necessary for the present occasion. The construction of their combs costs them a great deal of labour: they are made by insensible additions; and not cast at once in a mould, as some are apt to imagine. There seems no end of their shaping, finishing, and turning them neatly up. The cells for their young are most carefully formed; those designed for lodging the drones, are larger than the rest; and that for the queen-bee the largest of all. The cells in which the young brood are lodged, serve at different times for containing honey; and this proceeds from an obvious cause: every worm, before it is transformed into an aurelia, hangs its old skin on the partitions of its cell; and thus, while it strengthens the wall, diminishes the capacity of its late apartment. The same cell, in a single summer, is often tenanted by three or four worms in succession; and the next season by three or four more. Each worm takes particular care to fortify the pannels of its cell, by hanging up its spoils there: thus, the partitions being lined six or eight deep, become at last too narrow for a new brood, and are converted into store-houses for honey.

Those cells where nothing but honey is deposited, are much deeper than the rest. When the harvest of honey is so plentiful that they have not sufficient room for it, they either lengthen their combs, or build more; which are much longer than the former. Sometimes they work at three combs at a time; for when there are three work-houses, more bees may be thus employed, without embarrassing each other.

But honey, as was before observed, is not the only food upon which these animals subsist. The meal of flowers, of which their wax is formed, is one of their most favourite repasts. This is a diet which they live upon during the summer; and of which they lay up a large winter provision. The wax of which their combs are made, is no more

than this meal digested, and wrought into a paste. When the flowers upon which bees generally feed, are not fully blown, and this meal or dust is not offered in sufficient quantities, the bees pinch the tops of the stamina in which it is contained, with their teeth; and thus anticipate the progress of vegetation. In April and May, the bees are busy, from morning to evening, in gathering this meal; but when the weather becomes too hot in the midst of summer, they work only in the morning.

The bee is furnished with a stomach for its wax, as well as its honey. In the former of the two, their powder is altered, digested, and concocted into real wax, and is thus ejected by the same passage by which it was swallowed. Every comb, newly made, is white: but it becomes yellow as it grows old, and almost black when kept too long in the hive. Beside the wax thus digested, there is a large portion of the powder kneaded up for food in every hive, and kept in separate cells, for winter provision. This is called by the country people, bee-bread; and contributes to the health and strength of the animal during winter. Those who rear bees, may rob them of their honey, and feed them, during the winter, with treacle; but no proper substitute has yet been found for the bee-bread: and, without it, the animals become consumptive, and die.

As for the honey, it is extracted from that part of the flower called the nectareum. From the mouth this delicious fluid passes into the gullet; and then into the first stomach, or honey-bag, which, when filled, appears like an oblong bladder. Children, that live in country places, are well acquainted with this bladder; and destroy many bees, to come at their store of honey. When a bee has sufficiently filled its first stomach, it returns back to the hive, where it disgorges the honey into one of the cells. It often happens that the bee delivers its store to some other, at the mouth of the hive, and flies off for a fresh supply. Some honeycombs are always left open for common use; but many others are stopped up, till there is a necessity of opening them. Each of these is covered carefully with wax; so close, that the covers seem to be made at the very instant the fluid is deposited within them.

Having thus given a cursory description of the insect, individually considered, and of the habitation it forms, we

next come to its social habits and institutions: and, in considering this little animal attentively, after the necessary precautions for the immediate preservation of the community, its second care is turned to the continuance of posterity. How numerous soever the multitude of bees may appear in one swarm, yet they all owe their original to a single parent; which is called the *Queen-Bee*. It is indeed surprising that a single insect shall, in one summer, give birth to above twenty thousand young: but, upon opening her body, the wonder will cease; as the number of eggs appearing, at one time amounts to five thousand. This animal, whose existence is of such importance to her subjects, may easily be distinguished from the rest by her size, and the shape of her body. On her safety depends the whole welfare of the commonwealth; and the attentions paid her by all the rest of the swarm, evidently shew the dependence her subjects have upon her security. If this insect be carefully observed, she will be seen at times attended with a numerous retinue, marching from cell to cell, plunging the extremity of her body into many of them, and leaving a small egg in each.

The bees which generally compose her train, are thought to be males, which serve to impregnate her by turns. These are larger and blacker than the common bees; without stings, and without industry. They seem formed only to transmit a posterity; and to attend the queen, whenever she thinks proper to issue from the secret retreats of the hive, where she most usually resides. Upon the union of these two kinds depends all expectations of a future progeny; for the working bees are of no sex, and only labour for another offspring: yet such is their attention to their queen, that if she happens to die, they will leave off working, and take no further care of posterity. If, however, another queen is, in this state of universal despair, presented them, they immediately acknowledge her for their sovereign, and once more diligently apply to their labour. It must be observed, however, that all this fertility of the queen-bee, and the great attentions paid to her by the rest, are controverted by more recent observers. They assert, that the common bees are parents themselves; that they deposit their eggs in the cells which they have prepared; that the females are impreg-

nated by the males, and bring forth a progeny, which is wholly their own.

However, to go on with their history, as delivered us by Mr. Reaumur.—When the queen-bee has deposited the number of eggs necessary in the cells, the working bees undertake the care of the rising posterity. They are seen to leave off their usual employments; to construct proper receptacles for eggs; or to complete those that are already formed. They purposely build little cells, extremely solid, for the young; in which they employ a great deal of wax: those designed for lodging the males, as was already observed, are larger than the rest; and those for the queen-bees the largest of all. There is usually but one egg deposited in every cell; but when the fecundity of the queen is such, that it exceeds the number of cells already prepared, there are sometimes three or four eggs crowded together in the same apartment. But this is an inconvenience that the working bees will by no means suffer. They seem sensible that two young ones, stuffed up in the same cell, when they grow larger, will but embarrass, and at last destroy each other: they therefore take care to leave a cell to every egg; and remove or destroy the rest.

The single egg that is left remaining, is fixed to the bottom of the cell, and touches it but in a single point. A day or two after it is deposited, the worm is excluded from the shell of the egg, having the appearance of a maggot rolled up in a ring, and lying softly on a bed of a whitish-coloured jelly; upon which also the little animal begins to feed. In the mean time, the instant it appears, the working bees attend it with the most anxious and parental tenderness; they furnish it every hour with a supply of this whitish substance, on which it feeds and lies; and watch the cell with unremitting care. They are nurses that have a greater affection for the offspring of others, than many parents have for their own children. They are constant in visiting each cell, and seeing that nothing is wanting; preparing the white mixture, which is nothing but a composition of honey and wax, in their own bowels, with which they feed them. Thus attended; and plentifully fed, the worm, in less than six day's time, comes to its full growth, and no longer accepts the food offered it. When the bees

perceive that it has no further occasion for feeding, they perform the last offices of tenderness, and shut the little animal up in its cell: walling up the mouth of its apartment with wax: where they leave the worm to itself; having secured it from every external injury.

The worm is no sooner left inclosed, but from a state of inaction, it begins to labour, extending and shortening its body; and by this means lining the walls of its apartment with a silken tapestry, which it spins in the manner of caterpillars, before they undergo their last transformation. When their cell is thus prepared, the animal is soon after transformed into an aurelia; but differing from that of the common caterpillar, as it exhibits not only the legs, but the wings of the future bee, in its present state of inactivity. Thus, in about twenty or one and twenty days after the egg was laid, the bee is completely formed, and fitted to undergo the fatigues of its state. When all its parts have acquired their proper strength and consistence, the young animal opens its prison, by piercing with its teeth the waxen door that confines it. When just freed from its cell, it is as yet moist, and incommoded with the spoils of its former situation: but the officious bees are soon seen to flock round it, and to lick it clean on all sides with their trunks; while another band, with equal assiduity, are observed to feed it with honey: others again begin immediately to cleanse the cell that has been just left; to carry the ordure out of the hive, and to fit the place for a new inhabitant. The young bee soon repays their care by its industry; for as soon as ever its external parts become dry, it discovers its natural appetites for labour, and industriously begins the task, which it pursues unremittingly through life. The toil of man is irksome to him, and he earns his subsistence with pain; but this little animal seems happy in its pursuits, and finds delight in all its employments.

When just freed from the cell, and properly equipped by its fellow-bees for duty, it at once issues from the hive, and, instructed only by Nature, goes in quest of flowers, chooses only those that yield it a supply, rejects such as are barren of honey, or have been already drained by other adventurers; and when loaded, is never at a loss to find its way back to the common habitation. After this

first sally, it begins to gather the mealy powder that lies on every flower, which is afterwards converted into wax; and with this, the very first day, it returns with two large balls stuck to its thighs.

When bees first begin to break their prisons, there are generally above a hundred excluded in one day. Thus, in the space of a few weeks, the number of the inhabitants in one hive, of moderate size, becomes so great, that there is no place to contain the new comers; and they are scarcely excluded from the cell, when they are obliged, by the old bees, to sally forth in quest of new habitations. In other words, the hive begins to swarm, and the new progeny prepares for exile.

While there is room enough in the hive, the bees remain quietly together; it is necessity alone that compels the separation. Sometimes, indeed, the young brood, with graceless obstinacy, refuse to depart, and even venture to resist their progenitors. The young ones are known by being browner than the old, with whiter hair; the old ones are of a lighter colour, with red hair. The two armies are therefore easily distinguishable, and dreadful battles are often seen to ensue. But the victory almost ever terminates with strict political justice in favour of the veterans, and the rebellious offspring are driven off, not without loss and mutilation.

In different countries, the swarms make their appearance at different times of the year, and there are several signs previous to this intended migration. The night before, an unusual buzzing is heard in the hive; in the morning, though the weather be soft and inviting, they seem not to obey the call, being intent on more important meditations within. All labour is discontinued in the hive; every bee is either employed in forcing, or reluctantly yielding, a submission; at length, after some noise and tumult, a queen-bee is chosen to guard, rather than conduct the young colony to other habitations, and then they are marshalled without any apparent conductor. In less than a minute they leave their native abode, and forming a cloud round their protectress, they set off, without seeming to know the place of their destination; *the world before them, where to choose their place of rest.* The usual time of swarming is from ten in the morning to three in the afternoon, wher

the sun shines bright, and invites them to seek their fortunes. They flutter for a while in the air, like flakes of snow, and sometimes undertake a distant journey, but more frequently are contented with some neighbouring asylum; the branch of a tree, a chimney-top, or some other exposed situation. It is, indeed, remarkable, that all those animals, of whatever kind, that have long been under the protection of man, seem to lose a part of their natural sagacity in providing for themselves. The rabbit, when domesticated, forgets to dig holes, the hen to build a nest, and the bee to seek a shelter that shall protect it from the inclemencies of winter. In those countries where the bees are wild, and unprotected by man, they are always sure to build their waxen cells in the hollow of a tree; but with us, they seem improvident in their choice, and the first green branch that stops their flight, seems to be thought sufficient for their abode through winter. However, it does not appear that the queen chooses the place where they are to alight, for many of the stragglers, who seemed to be pleased with a particular branch, go and settle upon it; others are seen to succeed; and, at last, the queen herself, when she finds a sufficient number there before her, goes to make it the place of her head-quarters. When the queen is settled, the rest of the swarm soon follow; and, in about a quarter of an hour, the whole body seem to be at ease. It sometimes is found, that there are two or three queens to a swarm, and the colony is divided into parties; but it most usually happens, that one of these is more considerable than the other, and the bees, by degrees, desert the weakest, to take shelter under the most powerful protector. The deserted queen does not long survive this defeat; she takes refuge under the new monarch, and is soon destroyed by her jealous rival. Till this cruel execution is performed, the bees never go out to work; and if there should be a queen-bee belonging to the new colony left in the old hive, she always undergoes the fate of the former. However, it must be observed, that the bees never sacrifice any of their queens, when the hive is full of wax and honey; for there is at that time no danger in maintaining a plurality of breeders.

When the swarm is thus conducted to a place of rest, and the policy of government is settled, the bees soon re-

sume their former labours. The making cells, storing them with honey, impregnating the queen, making proper cells for the reception of the rising progeny, and protecting them from external danger, employ their unceasing industry. But soon after, and towards the latter end of summer, when the colony is sufficiently stored with inhabitants, a most cruel policy ensues. The drone bees, which are (as has been said) generally in a hive to the number of a hundred, are marked for slaughter. These, which had hitherto led a life of indolence and pleasure, whose only employment was in impregnating the queen, and rioting upon the labours of the hive, without aiding in the general toil, now share the fate of most voluptuaries, and fall a sacrifice to the general resentment of society.

The working bees, in a body, declare war against them; and in two or three days' time the ground all round the hive is covered with their dead bodies. Nay, the working bees will even kill such drones, as are yet in the worm state, in the cell, and eject their bodies from the hive, among the general carnage.

When a hive sends out several swarms in the year, the first is always the best, and the most numerous. These having the whole summer before them, have the more time for making wax and honey, and consequently their labours are the most valuable to the proprietor. Although the swarm chiefly consists of the youngest bees, yet it is often found that bees of all ages compose the multitude of emigrants, and it often happens that bees of all ages are seen remaining behind. The number of them is always more considerable than that of some populous cities, for sometimes upwards of forty thousand are found in a single hive. So large a body may well be supposed to work with great expedition; and, in fact, in less than twenty-four hours they will make combs above twenty inches long, and seven or eight broad. Sometimes they will half fill their hives with wax in less than five days. In the first fifteen days, they are always found to make more wax than they do afterwards during the rest of the year.

Such are the outlines of the natural history of these animals, as usually found in our own country. How they are treated, so as to produce the greatest quantity of honey, belongs rather to the rural economist, than the natural his-

torian ; volumes have been written on the subject, and still more remains equally curious and new. One thing, however, it may be proper to observe, that a farm, or a country, may be over-stocked with bees, as well as with any other sort of animal ; for a certain number of lives always require a certain number of flowers to subsist on. When the flowers near home are rifled, then are these industrious insects seen taking more extensive ranges : but their abilities may be overtaxed ; and if they are obliged, in quest of honey, to go too far from home, they are over-wearied in the pursuit, they are devoured by birds, or beat down by the winds and rain.

From a knowledge of this, in some parts of France and Piedmont, they have contrived, as I have often seen, a kind of floating bee-house.

They have on board one barge threescore or a hundred bee-hives, well defended from the inclemency of an accidental storm ; and with these the owners suffer themselves to float gently down the river. As the bees are continually choosing their flowery pasture along the banks of the stream, they are furnished with sweets before unrifled ; and thus a single floating bee-house yields the proprietor a considerable income. Why a method similar to this has never been adopted in England, where we have more gentle rivers, and more flowery banks, than in any other part of the world, I know not : certainly it might be turned to advantage, and yield the possessor a secure, though perhaps a moderate income.

Having mentioned the industry of these admirable insects, it will be proper to say something of the effects of their labour, of that wax and honey which are turned by man to such various uses. Bees gather two kinds of wax ; one coarse, and the other fine. The coarser sort is bitter, and with this, which is called *propolis*, they stop up all the holes and crevices of their hives. It is of a more resinous nature than the fine wax, and is consequently better qualified to resist the moisture of the season, and preserve the works warm and dry within. The fine wax is as necessary to the animal's preservation as the honey itself. With this they make their lodgings, with this they cover the cells of their young, and in this they lay up their magazines of honey. This is made, as has been already observed, from the dust of flowers, which is carefully kneaded by the little insect, then swallowed, and having undergone a kind of digestion, is formed into the

cells, which answer such a variety of purposes. To collect this, the animal rolls itself in the flower it would rob, and thus takes up the vegetable dust with the hair of its body. Then carefully brushing it into a lump, with its fore-paws it thrusts the composition into two cavities behind the thighs, which are made like spoons to receive the wax, and the hair that lines them serves to keep it from falling.

As of wax, there are also two kinds of honey; the white and the yellow. The white is taken without fire from the honey-combs. The yellow is extracted by heat, and squeezed through bags, in a press. The best honey is new, thick, and granulated, of a clear transparent white colour, of a soft and aromatic smell, and of a sweet lively taste. Honey made in mountainous countries is preferable to that of the valley. The honey made in the spring is more highly esteemed than that gathered in summer; which last is still more valuable than that of autumn, when the flowers begin to fade, and lose their fragrance.

The bees are nearly alike in all parts of the world; yet there are differences worthy our notice. In Guadaloupe, the bee is less by one half than the European, and more black and round. They have no sting, and make their cells in hollow trees; where, if the hole they meet with is too large, they form a sort of waxen house of the shape of a pear, and in this they lodge and store their honey, and lay their eggs. They lay up their honey in waxen vessels, of the size of a pigeon's egg, of a black or deep violet colour; and these are so joined together, that there is no space left between them. The honey never congeals, but is fluid, of the consistence of oil, and the colour of amber. Resembling these, there are found little black bees, without a sting, in all the tropical climates; and though these countries are replete with bees like our own, yet those form the most useful and laborious tribe in that part of the world. The honey they produce is neither so unpalatable nor so surfeiting as ours; and the wax is so soft that it is only used for medicinal purposes, it being never found hard enough to form into candles, as in Europe.

Of insects that receive the name of bees among us, there are several; which, however, differ very widely from that industrious social race we have been just describing. The Humble-Bee is the largest of all this tribe, being as large as

the first joint of one's middle finger. These are seen in every field, and perched on every flower. They build their nest in holes in the ground, of dry leaves, mixed with wax and wood, defended with moss from the weather. Each humble-bee makes a separate cell about the size of a small nutmeg, which is round and hollow, containing the honey in a bag. Several of these cells are joined together in such a manner, that the whole appears like a cluster of grapes. The females, which have the appearance of wasps, are very few, and their eggs are laid in cells, which the rest soon cover over with wax. It is uncertain whether they have a queen or not; but there is one much larger than the rest, without wings, and without hair, and all over black, like polished ebony. This goes and views all the works, from time to time, and enters into the cell, as if it wanted to see whether every thing was done right. In the morning the young humble-bees are very idle, and seem not at all inclined to labour, till one of the largest, about seven o'clock, thrusts half its body from a hole designed for that purpose, and seated on the top of the nest, beats its wings for twenty minutes successively, buzzing the whole time, till the whole colony is put in motion. The humble-bees gather honey as well as the common bees; but it is neither so fine nor so good, nor the wax so clean, or so capable of fusion.

Beside the bees already mentioned, there are various kinds among us, that have much the appearance of honey-makers, and yet make only wax. The Wood-Bee is seen in every garden. It is rather larger than the common queen-bee; its body of a blueish black, which is smooth and shining. It begins to appear at the approach of spring, and is seen flying near walls exposed to a sunny aspect. This bee makes its nest in some piece of wood, which it contrives to scoop and hollow for its purpose. This, however, is never done in trees that are standing, for the wood it makes choice of is half rotten. The holes are not made directly forward, but turning to one side, and have an opening sufficient to admit one's middle finger, from whence runs the inner apartment, generally twelve or fifteen inches long. The instruments used in boring these cavities are their teeth; the cavity is usually branched into three or four apartments; and in each of these they lay their eggs, to the number of ten or twelve, each separate and distinct from the rest: the

egg is involved in a sort of paste, which serves at once for the young animal's protection and nourishment. The grown bees, however, feed upon small insects, particularly a louse, of a reddish brown colour, of the size of a small pin's head.

Mason-Bees make their cells with a sort of mortar made of earth, which they build against a wall that is exposed to the sun. The mortar, which at first is soft, soon becomes as hard as stone, and in this their eggs are laid. Each nest contains seven or eight cells, an egg in every cell, placed regularly one over the other. If the nests remain unhurt, or want but little repairs, they make use of them the year ensuing: and thus they often serve three or four years successively. From the strength of their houses, one would think these bees in perfect security; yet none are more exposed than they. A worm with very strong teeth is often found to bore into their little fortifications, and devour their young.

The Ground-Bee builds its nest in the earth, wherein they make round holes, five or six inches deep; the mouth being narrow, and only just sufficient to admit the little inhabitant.

It is amusing enough to observe the patience and assiduity with which they labour. They carry out all the earth, grain by grain, to the mouth of the hole, where it forms a little hillock; an Alps, compared to the power of the artist by which it is raised. Sometimes the walks of a garden are found undermined by their labours; some of the holes running directly downward, others horizontally beneath the surface. They lay up in these cavities provisions for their young, which consist of a paste that has the appearance of corn, and is of a sweetish taste.

The Leaf-cutting Bees make their nest and lay their eggs among bits of leaves, very artificially placed in holes in the earth, of about the length of a tooth-pick case. They make the bits of leaves of a roundish form, and with them line the inside of their habitations. This tapestry is still further lined by a reddish kind of paste, somewhat sweet or acid. These bees are of various kinds; those that build their nests with chesnut leaves are as big as drones, but those of the rose-tree are smaller than the common bee.

The Wall-Bees are so called because they make their

nests in walls, of a kind of silky membrane with which they fill up the vacuities between the small stones which form the sides of their habitation. Their apartment consists of several cells placed end to end, each in the shape of a woman's chimble. Though the web which lines this habitation is thick and warm, yet it is transparent, and of a whitish colour. This substance is supposed to be spun from the animal's body. The males and females are of a size, but the former are without a sting.—To these varieties of the bee kind might be added several others, which are all different in nature, but not sufficiently distinguished to excite curiosity.

CHAP. III.

OF THE WASP.

HOWEVER similar many insects may be in appearance, this does not imply a similitude in their history. The bee and the wasp resemble each other very strongly, yet, in examining their manner and their duration, they differ very widely: the bee labours to lay up honey, and lives to enjoy the fruits of its industry: the wasp appears equally assiduous: but only works for posterity, as the habitation is scarcely completed when the inhabitant dies.

The wasp is well known to be a winged insect with a sting. To be longer in proportion to its bulk than the bee, to be marked with bright yellow circles round its body, and to be the most swift and active insect of all the fly kind. On each side of the mouth this animal is furnished with a long tooth, notched like a saw, and with these it is enabled to cut any substance, not omitting meat itself, and to carry it to its nest. Wasps live, like bees, in community, and sometimes ten or twelve thousand are found inhabiting a single nest.

Of all other insects the wasp is the most fierce, voracious, and most dangerous, when enraged. They are seen wher-

ever flesh is cutting up, gorging themselves with the spoil, and then flying to their nests with their reeking prey. They make war also on every other fly, and the spider himself dreads their approaches.

Every community among bees is composed of females or queens, drones or males, and neutral or working bees. Wasps have similar occupations; the two first are for propagating the species, the last for nursing, defending, and supporting the rising progeny. Among bees, however, there is seldom above a queen or two in a hive; among wasps there are above two or three hundred.

As soon as the summer begins to invigorate the insect tribes, the wasps are the most of the number, and diligently employed either in providing provisions for their nest, if already made; or in making one, if the former habitation be too small to receive the increasing community. The nest is one of the most curious objects in natural history, and contrived almost as artificially as that of the bees themselves. Their principal care is to seek out a hole that has been begun by some other animal, a field-mouse, a rat, or a mole, to build their nests in. They sometimes build upon the plain, where they are sure of the dryness of their situation; but most commonly on the side of a bank, to avoid the rain or water that would otherwise annoy them. When they have chosen a proper place, they go to work with wonderful assiduity. Their first labour is to enlarge and widen the hole, taking away the earth, and carrying it off to some distance. They are perfectly formed for labour, being furnished with a trunk above their mouths, two saws on each side, which play to the right and left against each other, and six strong muscular legs to support them. They cut the earth into small parcels with their saws, and carry it out with their legs or paws. This is the work of some days; and at length the outline of their habitation is formed, making a cavity of about a foot and a half every way. While some are working in this manner, others are roving the fields to seek out materials for their building. To prevent the earth from falling down and crushing their rising city into ruin, they make a sort of roof with their gluey substance, to which they begin to fix the rudiments of their building, working from the top downwards, as if

they were hanging a bell; which, however, at length they close up at the bottom. The materials with which they build their nests are bits of wood and glue. The wood they get where they can from the rails and posts which they meet with in the fields and elsewhere. These they saw and divide into a multitude of small fibres, of which they take up little bundles in their claws, letting fall upon them a few drops of gluey matter, with which their bodies are provided, by the help of which they knead the whole composition into a paste, which serves them in their future building. When they have returned with this to the nest, they stick their load of paste on that part where they make their walls and partitions; they tread it close with their feet, and trowel it with their trunks, still going backwards as they work. Having repeated this operation three or four times, the composition is at length flatted out until it becomes a small leaf of a gray colour, much finer than paper, and of a pretty firm texture. This done, the same wasp returns to the field to collect a second load of paste, repeating the same several times, placing layer upon layer, and strengthening every partition in proportion to the wants or convenience of the general fabric. Other working wasps come quickly after to repeat the same operation, laying more leaves upon the former, till at length, after much toil, they have finished the large roof, which is to secure them from the tumbling in of the earth. This dome being finished, they make another entrance to their habitation, designed either for letting in the warmth of the sun, or for escaping, in case one door be invaded by plunderers. Certain however, it is, that by one of these they always enter, by the other they sally forth to their toil; each hole being so small that they can pass but one at a time. The walls being thus composed, and the whole somewhat of the shape of a pear, they labour at their cells, which they compose of the same paper-like substance that goes to the formation of the outside works. Their combs differ from those of bees not less in the composition than the position which they are always seen to obtain. The honey-comb of the bee is edgeways with respect to the hive; that of the wasp is flat, and the mouth of every cell opens downwards. Thus is their habitation contrived, story above story, supported by several rows of pillars, which give

firmness to the whole building, while the upper story is flat-roofed, and as smooth as the pavement of a room, laid with squares of marble. The wasps can freely walk upon these stories between the pillars, to do whatever their wants require. The pillars are very hard and compact, being larger at each end than in the middle, not much unlike the columns of a building. All the cells of the nest are only destined for the reception of the young, being replete with neither wax nor honey.

Each cell is like that of the bee, hexagonal: but they are of two sorts; the one larger, for the production of the male and female wasps; the other less, for the reception of the working part of the community. When the females are impregnated by the males, they lay their eggs, one in each cell, and stick it in with a kind of gummy matter to prevent its falling out. From this egg proceeds the insect in its worm state, of which the old ones are extremely careful, feeding it from time to time till it becomes large, and entirely fills up its cell. But the wasp community differs from that of the bee in this; that among the latter the working-bees take the parental duties upon them, whereas among the wasps the females alone are permitted to feed their young, and to nurse their rising progeny. For this purpose, the female waits with great patience till the working-wasps have brought in their provisions, which she takes from them and cuts into pieces. She then goes with great composure from cell to cell, and feeds every young one with her mouth. When the young worms have come to a certain size they leave off eating, and begin to spin a very fine silk, fixing their first end to the entrance of the cell; then turning their heads, first on one side, then on the other, they fix the thread to different parts, and thus they make a sort of a door, which serves to close up the mouth of the cell. After this they divest themselves of their skins after the usual mode of transformation: the aurelia, by degrees, begins to emancipate itself from its shell; by little and little it thrusts out its legs and wings, and insensibly acquires the colour and shape of its parent.

The wasp thus formed, and prepared for depredation, becomes a bold, troublesome, and dangerous insect: there are no dangers which it will not encounter in pursuit of its prey, and nothing seems to satiate its gluttony. Though it can

gather no honey of its own, no animal is more fond of sweets. For this purpose it will pursue the bee and the humble-bee, destroy them with its sting, and then plunder them of their honey-bag, with which it flies triumphantly loaded to its nest to regale its young. Wasps are ever fond of making their nests in the neighbourhood of bees, merely to have an opportunity of robbing their hives, and feasting on the spoil. Yet the bees are not found always patiently submissive to their tyranny, but fierce battles are sometimes seen to ensue, in which the bees make up by conduct and numbers what they want in personal prowess. When there is no honey to be had, they seek for the best and sweetest fruits, and they are never mistaken in their choice. From the garden they fly to the city, to the grocers' shops, and butchers' shambles. They will sometimes carry off bits of flesh half as big as themselves, with which they fly to their nest for the nourishment of their brood. Those who cannot drive them away, lay for them a piece of ox's liver, which being without fibres, they prefer to other flesh; and ~~whenever~~ they are found, all other flies are seen to desert the place immediately. Such is the dread with which these little animals impress all the rest of the insect tribes, which they seize and devour without mercy, that they vanish at their approach. Wherever they fly, like the eagle or the falcon, they form a desert in the air around them. In this manner the summer is passed in plundering the neighbourhood, and rearing up their young: every day adds to their numbers; and from their strength, agility, and indiscriminate appetite for every kind of provision: were they as long-lived as the bee, they would soon swarm upon the face of nature, and become the most noxious plague of man; but providentially their lives are measured to their mischief, and they live but a single season.

While the summer heats continue, they are bold, voracious, and enterprising; but as the sun withdraws, it seems to rob them of their courage and activity. In proportion as the cold increases, they are seen to become more domestic; they seldom leave the nest; they make but short adventures from home, they flutter about in the noon-day heats, and soon after return chilled and feeble.

As their calamities increase, new passions soon begin to take place; the care for posterity no longer continues; and

as the parents are no longer able to provide their growing progeny a supply, they take the barbarous resolution of sacrificing them all to the necessity of the times. In this manner, like a garrison upon short allowance, all the useless hands are destroyed; the young worms, which a little before they fed and protected with so much assiduity, are now butchered, and dragged from their cells. As the cold increases, they no longer find sufficient warmth in their nests, which grow hateful to them, and they fly to seek it in the corners of houses, and places that receive an artificial heat. But the winter is still insupportable; and before the new year begins, they wither and die; the working-wasps first, the males soon following, and many of the females suffer in the general calamity. In every nest, however, one or two females survive the winter, and having been impregnated by the male during the preceding season, she begins in spring to lay her eggs in a little hole of her own contrivance. This bundle of eggs, which is clustered together like grapes, soon produces two worms, which the female takes proper precaution to defend and supply, and these, when hatched, soon give assistance to the female, who is employed in hatching two more; these also gathering strength, extricate themselves out of the web that inclosed them, and become likewise assistants to their mother; fifteen days after, two more make their appearance; thus is the community every day increasing, while the female lays in every cell, first a male and then a female. These soon after become breeders in turn, till, from a single female, ten thousand wasps are seen produced before the month of June. After the female has thus produced her progeny, which are distributed in different districts, they assemble from all parts in the middle of summer, and provide for themselves the large and commodious habitation which has been described above.

Such is the history of the social wasp; but, as among bees, so also among these insects, there are various tribes that live in solitude; these lay their eggs in a hole for the purpose, and the parent dies long before the birth of its offspring. In the principal species of the Solitary-Wasps, the insect is smaller than the working-wasp of the social kind. The filament by which the corselet is joined to the body, is longer and more distinctly seen, and the whole colour of the insect is blacker than in the ordinary kinds.

But it is not their figure, but the manners of this extraordinary insect, that claim our principal regard.

From the end of May to the beginning of July this wasp is seen most diligently employed. The whole purpose of its life seems to be in contriving and fitting up a commodious apartment for its young one, which is not to succeed it till the year ensuing. For this end it is employed, with unwearyed assiduity, in boring a hole into the finest earth some inches deep, but not much wider than the diameter of its own body. This is but a gallery leading to a wider apartment destined for the convenient lodgment of its young. As it always chooses a gravelly soil to work in, and where the earth is almost as hard as stone itself, the digging and hollowing this apartment is an enterprise of no small labour: for effecting its operations, this insect is furnished with two teeth, which are strong and firm, but not sufficiently hard to penetrate the substance through which it is resolved to make its way. In order therefore to soften that earth which it is unable to pierce, it is furnished with a gummy liquor, which it emits upon the place, and which renders it more easily separable from the rest, and the whole becoming a kind of soft paste, is removed to the mouth of the habitation. The animal's provision of liquor in these operations is, however, soon exhausted; and it is then seen taking up water either from some neighbouring flower or stream, in order to supply the deficiency.

At length, after much toil, a hole some inches deep is formed, at the bottom of which is a large cavity; and to this no other hostile insect would venture to find its way, from the length and the narrowness of the defile through which it would be obliged to pass. In this the solitary wasp lays its egg, which is destined to continue the species; there the nascent animal is to continue for about nine months, untended and immured, and at first appearance the most helpless insect of the creation. But when we come to examine, new wonders offers; no other insect can boast so copiously luxurious a provision, or such confirmed security.

As soon as the mother wasp has deposited her egg at the bottom of the hole, her next care is to furnish it with a supply of provisions, which may be offered to the young insect as soon as it leaves the egg. To this end she procures a number of little green worms, generally from eight to twelve,

and these are to serve as food for the young one the instant it awakens into life. When this supply is regularly arranged and laid in, the old one then, with as much assiduity as it before worked out its hole, now closes the mouth of the passage; and thus leaving its young one immured in perfect security, and in a copious supply of animal food, she dies satisfied with having provided for a future progeny.

When the young one leaves the egg, it is scarcely visible, and is seen immured among a number of insects, infinitely larger than itself, ranged in proper order around it, which, however, give it no manner of apprehension. Whether the parent, when she laid in the insect provision, contrived to disable the worms from resistance, or whether they were at first incapable of any, is not known. Certain it is, that the young glutton feasts upon the living spoil without any control; his game lies at his hand, and he devours one after the other as the calls of appetite incite him. The life of the young animal is therefore spent in the most luxurious manner, till its whole stock of worms is exhausted, when the time of its transformation begins to approach; and then spinning a silken web, it continues fixed in its cell till the sun calls it from its dark abode the ensuing summer.

The wasps of Europe are very mischievous, yet they are innocence itself when compared to those of the tropical climates, where all the insect tribes are not only numerous but large, voracious, and formidable. Those of the West Indies are thicker, and twice as long, as the common bee; they are of a gray colour, striped with yellow, and armed with a very dangerous sting. They make their cells in the manner of a honey-comb, in which the young ones are hatched and bred. They generally hang their nests by threads, composed of the same substance with the cells, to the branches of trees, and the eaves of houses. They are seen every where in great abundance, descending like fruit, particularly pears, of which shape they are, and as large as one's head. The inside is divided into three round stories full of cells, each hexagonal, like those of a honey-comb. In some of the islands these insects are so very numerous, that their nests are stuck up in this manner, scarce two feet asunder, and the inhabitants are in continual apprehension from their accidental resentment. It sometimes happens that no precautions can prevent their attacks, and the pain of their sting is almost insupportable.

Those who have felt it, think it more terrible than even that of a scorpion; the whole visage swells, and the features are so disfigured, that a person is scarcely known by his most intimate acquaintance.

CHAP. IV.

OF THE ICHNEUMON FLY.

EVERY rank of insects, how voracious soever, have enemies that are terrible to them, and that revenge upon them the injuries done upon the rest of the animated creation. The wasp, as we have seen, is very troublesome to man, and very formidable to the insect tribe; but the ichneumon fly (of which there are many varieties) fears not the wasp itself; it enters its retreats, plunders its habitations, and takes possession of that cell for its own young, which the wasp had laboriously built for a dearer posterity.

Though there are many different kinds of this insect, yet the most formidable, and that best known, is called the common ichneumon, with four wings, like the bee; a long, slender, black body, and a three-forked tail, consisting of bristles; the two outermost black, and the middlemost red. This fly receives its name from the little quadruped; which is found to be so destructive to the crocodile, as it bears a strong similitude in its courage and rapacity.

Though this instrument is, to all appearance, slender and feeble, yet it is found to be a weapon of great force and efficacy. There is scarcely any substance which it will not pierce; and indeed it is seldom seen but employed in penetration. This is the weapon of defence; this is employed in destroying its prey; and still more, by this the animal deposits her eggs wherever she thinks fit to lay them. As it is an instrument chiefly employed for this purpose, the male is unprovided with such a sting, while the female uses it with great force and dexterity, brandishing it when caught, from side to side, and very often wounding those who thought they held her with the greatest security.

All the flies of this tribe are produced in the same manner, and owe their birth to the destruction of some other insect, within whose body they have been deposited, and upon whose

vitals they have preyed, till they came to maturity. There is no insect whatever, which they will not attack, in order to leave their fatal present in its body; the caterpillar, the gnat, and even the spider himself, so formidable to others, is often made the unwilling fosterer of this destructive progeny.

About the middle of the summer, when other insects are found in great abundance, the ichneumon is seen flying busily about, and seeking proper objects upon whom to deposit its progeny. As there are various kinds of this fly, so they seem to have various appetites. Some are found to place their eggs within the aurelia of some nascent insect, others place them within the nest, which the wasp had curiously contrived for its own young: and as both are produced at the same time, the young of the ichneumon not only devours the young wasp but the whole supply of worms, which the parent had carefully provided for its provision. But the greatest number of the ichneumon tribe are seen settling upon the back of the caterpillar, and darting, at different intervals, their stings into its body. At every dart they deposit an egg, while the wounded animal seems scarcely sensible of the injury it sustains. In this manner they leave from six to a dozen of their eggs within the fatty substance of the reptile's body, and then fly off to commit further depredations. In the mean time, the caterpillar, thus irreparably injured, seems to feed as voraciously as before; does not abate of its usual activity; and to all appearance, seems no way affected by the internal enemies that are preparing its destruction in their darksome abode. But they soon burst from their egg state, and begin to prey upon the substance of their prison. As they grow larger, they require a greater supply; till at last the animal, by whose vitals they are supported, is no longer able to sustain them, but dies; its whole inside being almost eaten away. It often happens, however, that it survives their worm-state, and then they change into a chrysalis, inclosed in the caterpillar's body till the time of their delivery approaches, when they burst their prisons, and fly away. The caterpillar, however, is irreparably destroyed, it never changes into a chrysalis, but dies shortly after from the injuries it had sustained.

Such is the history of this fly, which, though very terrible to the insect tribe, fails not to be of infinite service to mankind. The millions which it kills in a single summer are

inconceivable ; and without such a destroyer, the fruits of the earth would only rise to furnish a banquet for the insect race, to the exclusion of all the nobler ranks of animated nature.

CHAP. V.

OF THE ANT.

THOUGH the number of two-winged flies be very great, and the naturalists have taken much pains to describe their characters and varieties ; yet there is such a similitude in their forms and manners, that, in a work like this, one description must serve for all. We now, therefore, come to a species of four-winged insects, that are famous from all antiquity for their social and industrious habits, that are marked for their spirit of subordination, that are offered as a pattern of parsimony to the profuse, and of unremitting diligence to the sluggard.

In the experiments, however, which have been more recently made, and the observations which have been taken, much of their boasted frugality and precaution seems denied them : the treasures they lay up are no longer supposed intended for future provision ; and the choice they make in their stores, seems no way dictated by wisdom. It is indeed somewhat surprising, that almost every writer of antiquity should describe this insect, as labouring in the summer, and feasting upon the produce during the winter. Perhaps, in some of the warmer climates, where the winter is mild, and of short continuance, this may take place ; but in France and England, these animals can have no manner of occasion for a supply of winter provisions, as they are actually in a state of torpidity during that season.

The common ants of Europe are of two or three different kinds ; some red, some black ; some with stings, and others without : such as have stings, inflict their wounds in that manner ; such as are unprovided with these weapons of defence, have a power of spurting from their hinder parts an acid pungent liquor, which, if it lights upon the skin, inflames and burns it like nettles.

The body of an ant is divided into the head, breast, and belly. In the head the eyes are placed, which are entirely black, and under their eyes there are two small horns or feelers, composed of twelve joints, all covered with a fine silky hair. The mouth is furnished with two crooked jaws, which project outwards, in each of which are seen incisures, that look like teeth. The breast is covered with a fine silky hair, from which project six legs, that are pretty strong and hairy, the extremities of each armed with two small claws, which the animal uses in climbing. The belly is more reddish than the rest of the body, which is of a brown chesnut colour, shining as glass, and covered with extremely fine hair.

From such a formation, this animal seems bolder and more active, for its size, than any other of the insect tribe, and fears not to attack a creature often above ten times its own magnitude.

As soon as the winter is past, in the first fine day in April, the ant-hill, that before seemed a desert, now swarms with new life, and myriads of these insects are seen just awaked from their annual lethargy, and preparing for the pleasures and fatigues of the season. For the first day they never offer to leave the hill, which may be considered as their citadel, but run over every part of it, as if to examine its present situation, to observe what injuries it has sustained during the rigours of winter,* while they slept, and to meditate and settle the labours of the day ensuing.

At the first display of their forces, none but the wingless tribe appears, while those furnished with wings remain at the bottom. These are the working ants that first appear, and that are always destitute of wings; the males and females, that are furnished with four large wings each, are more slow in making their appearance.

Thus, like bees, they are divided into males, females, and the neutral or the working tribe. These are all easily distinguished from each other; the females are much larger than the males; the working ants are the smallest of all. The two former have wings; which, however, they sometimes are divested of; the latter never have any, and upon them are devolved all the labours that tend to the welfare of the community. The female, also, may

* *Memoires pour servir à l'Histoire des Insectes* par Charles de Geer.

be distinguished by the colour and structure of her breast, which is a little more brown than that of the common ant, and a little brighter than that of the male.

In eight or ten days after their first appearance, the labours of the hill are in some forwardness; the males and females are seen mixed with the working multitude, and pursued or pursuing each other. They seem no way to partake in the common drudgeries of the state; the males pursue the females with great assiduity, and in a manner force them to compliance. They remain coupled for some time; while the males, thus united, suffer themselves to be drawn along by the will of their partners.

In the mean time, the working body of the state take no part in their pleasures; they are seen diligently going from the ant-hill in pursuit of food for themselves and their associates, and of proper materials for giving a comfortable retreat to their young, or safety to their habitation. In the fields of England, ant-hills are formed with but little apparent regularity. In the more southern provinces of Europe, they are constructed with wonderful contrivance, and offer a sight highly worthy a naturalist's curiosity. These are generally formed in the neighbourhood of some large tree and a stream of water. The one is considered by the animals as the proper place for getting food; the other for supplying them with moisture, which they cannot well dispense with. The shape of the ant-hill is that of a sugar-loaf, about three feet high, composed of various substances; leaves, bits of wood, sand, earth, bits of gum, and grains of corn. These are all united into a compact body, perforated with galleries down to the bottom, and winding ways within the body of the structure. From this retreat, to the water, as well as to the tree, in different directions, there are many paths worn by constant assiduity, and along these the busy insects are seen passing and repassing continually; so that from May, or the beginning of June, according to the state of the season, they work continually, till the bad weather comes on.

The chief employment of the working ants, is in sustaining not only the idlers at home, but also finding a sufficiency of food for themselves. They live upon various provisions, as well of the vegetable as of the animal kind. Small insects they will kill and devour: sweets of all kinds

they are particularly fond of. They seldom, however, think of their community, till they themselves are first satiated. Having found a juicy fruit, they swallow what they can, and then tearing it in pieces, carry home their load. If they meet with an insect above their match, several of them will fall upon it at once, and having mangled it, each will carry off a part of the spoil. If they meet, in their excursions, any thing that is too heavy for one to bear, and yet which they are unable to divide, several of them will endeavour to force it along, some dragging, and others pushing. If any one of them happens to make a lucky discovery, it will immediately give advice to others, and then, at once, the whole republic will put themselves in motion. If in these struggles one of them happens to be killed, some kind survivor will carry him off to a great distance, to prevent the obstructions his body might give to the general spirit of industry.

But while they are thus employed in supporting the state in feeding abroad, and carrying in provisions to those that continue at home, they are not unmindful of posterity. After a few days of fine weather, the female ants begin to lay their eggs, and those are as assiduously watched and protected by the working ants, who take upon themselves to supply whatever is wanting to the nascent animal's convenience or necessity. They are carried, as soon as laid, to the safest situation, at the bottom of their hill, where they are carefully defended from cold and moisture. We are not to suppose, that those white substances which we so plentifully find in every ant-hill, are the eggs as newly laid. On the contrary, the ant's egg is so very small, that, though laid upon a black ground, it can scarcely be discerned. The little white bodies we see are the young animals in their maggot state, endued with life, long since freed from the egg, and often involved in a cone, which it has spun round itself, like the silk-worm. The real egg when laid, if viewed through a microscope, appears smooth, polished, and shining, while the maggot is seen composed of twelve rings, and is often larger than the ant itself.—It is impossible to express the fond attachment which the working ants shew to their rising progeny. In cold weather they take them in their mouths, but without offering them the smallest injury, to the very depths of their habi-

tation, where they are less subject to the severity of the season. In a fine day they remove them with the same care nearer the surface, where their maturity may be assisted by the warm beams of the sun. If a formidable enemy should come to batter down their whole habitation, and crush them by thousands in the ruin, yet these wonderful insects, still mindful of their parental duties, make it their first care to save their offspring. They are seen running wildly about, and different ways, each loaded with a young one, often bigger than the insect that supports it. I have kept, says Swammerdam, several of the working ants in my closet, with their young in a glass filled with earth. I took pleasure in observing, that in proportion as the earth dried on the surface, they dug deeper and deeper to deposit their eggs; and when I poured water thereon, it was surprising to see with what care, affection, and diligence, they laboured, to put their brood in safety, in the driest place. I have seen also, that when water has been wanting for several days, and when the earth was moistened after it a little, they immediately carried their young ones to have a share, who seemed to enjoy and suck the moisture.

When the young maggot is come to its full growth, the breast swells insensibly, it casts its skin, and loses all motion. All the members which were hidden before, then begin to appear; an aurelia is formed, which represents very distinctly all the parts of the animal, though they are yet without motion, and, as it were, wrapped up in swaddling clothes. When at length the little insect has passed through all its changes, and acquired its proper maturity, it bursts this last skin, to assume the form it is to retain ever after. Yet this is not done by efforts of the little animal alone, for the old ones very assiduously break open, with their teeth, the covering in which it is enclosed. Without this assistance the aurelia would never be able to get free, as M. de G  er often found, who tried the experiment by leaving the aurelia to themselves. The old ones not only assist them, but know the very precise time for lending their assistance; for, if produced too soon, the young one dies of cold; if retarded too long, it is suffocated in its prison.

When the female has done laying, and the whole brood is thus produced, her labours, as well as that of the male,

become unnecessary ; and her wings, which she had but a short time before so actively employed, drop off. What becomes of her when thus divested of her ornaments is not well known, for she is seen in the cells for some weeks after. The males, on the other hand, having no longer any occupation at home, make use of those wings with which they have been furnished by nature, and fly away, never to return or be heard of more. It is probable they perish with the cold, or are devoured by the birds, which are particularly fond of this petty prey.

In the mean time, the working ants having probably deposed their queens, and being deserted by the males, that served but to clog the community, prepare for the severity of the winter, and bury their retreats as deep in the earth as they conveniently can. It is now found that the grains of corn, and other substances with which they furnish their hill, are only meant as fences to keep off the rigours of the weather, not as provisions to support them during its continuance. It is found generally to obtain, that every insect that lives a year after it is come to its full growth, is obliged to pass four or five months without taking any nourishment, and will seem to be dead all that time. It would be to no purpose, therefore, for ants to lay up corn for the winter, since they lie that time without motion, heaped upon each other, and are so far from eating, that they are utterly unable to stir. Thus, what authors have dignified by the name of a magazine, appears to be no more than a cavity, which serves for a common retreat when the weather forces them to return to their lethargic state.

What has been said with exaggeration of the European ant, is however true, if asserted of those of the tropical climates. They build an ant-hill with great contrivance and regularity, they lay up provisions, and as they probably live the whole year, they submit themselves to regulations entirely unknown among the ants of Europe.

Those of Africa are of three kinds, the red, the green, and the black ; the latter are above an inch long, and in every respect a most formidable insect. Their sting produces extreme pain, and their depredations are sometimes extremely destructive. They build an ant-hill of a very great size, from six to twelve feet high ; it is made of vis-

cous clay, and tapers into a pyramidal form. This habitation is constructed with great artifice; and the cells are so numerous and even, that a honey-comb scarce exceeds them in number and regularity.

The inhabitants of this edifice seem to be under a very strict regulation. At the slightest warning they will sally out upon whatever disturbs them; and if they have time to arrest their enemy, he is sure to find no mercy. Sheep, hens, and even rats, are often destroyed by these merciless insects, and their flesh devoured to the bone. No anatomist in the world can strip a skeleton so completely as they; and no animal, how strong soever, when they have once seized upon it, has power to resist them.

It often happens that these insects quit their retreat in a body, and go in quest of adventures. "During my stay," says Smith, "at Cape Corse Castle, a body of these ants came to pay us a visit in our fortification. It was about day-break when the advanced guard of this famished crew entered the chapel, where some negro servants were asleep upon the floor. The men were quickly alarmed at the invasion of this unexpected army, and prepared, as well as they could, for a defence. While the foremost battalion of insects had already taken possession of the place, the rear-guard was more than a quarter of a mile distant. The whole ground seemed alive, and crawling with unceasing destruction. After deliberating a few moments upon what was to be done, it was resolved to lay a large train of gunpowder along the path they had taken: by this means, millions were blown to pieces; and the rear-guard perceiving the destruction of their leaders, thought proper instantly to return and make back to their original habitation."

The order which these ants observe, seems very extraordinary; whenever they sally forth, fifty or sixty larger than the rest are seen to head the band, and conduct them to their destined prey. If they have a fixed spot where their prey continues to resort, they then form a vaulted gallery, which is sometimes a quarter of a mile in length; and yet they will hollow it out in the space of ten or twelve hours.*

* But far exceeding in wisdom and policy the Bee, the Ant, or the Beaver, is the White Ant inhabiting the plains of East India, Africa, and South America. The animals of this extraordinary community consist

CHAP. VI.

OF THE BEETLE, AND ITS VARIETIES.

HITHERTO we have been treating of insects with four transparent wings, we now come to a tribe with two transparent wings, with cases that cover them close while at rest, but which allow them their proper play when flying. The principal of these are the Beetle, the May-bug, and the Cantharis. These are all bred like the rest of their order, first from eggs, then they become grubs, then a chrysalis, in which the parts of the future fly are distinctly seen; and, lastly, the animal leaves its prison, breaking forth as a winged animal in full maturity.

Of the Beetle there are various kinds; all, however, concurring in one common formation of having cases to their wings, which are the more necessary to those insects, as they often live under the surface of the earth, in holes which they dig out by their own industry. These cases prevent the various injuries their real wings might sustain, by rubbing or crushing against the sides of their abode. These, though they do not assist flight, yet keep the internal wings clean and even, and produce a loud buzzing noise when the animal rises in the air.

If we examine the formation of all animals of the beetle kind, we shall find, as in shell-fish, that their bones are placed externally, and their muscles within. These muscles are formed very much like those of quadrupeds, and are endowed with such surprising strength, that, bulk for bulk, they are a thousand times stronger than those of a man.—The strength of these muscles is of use in digging the animal's subterraneous abode, where it is most usually hatched, and to which it most frequently returns, even after it becomes a winged insect, capable of flying.

of working insects or labourers, about half an inch long, having six feet, and no eyes; fighting insects or soldiers, about an inch long, with a large head, and no eyes; and the perfect male and female insect, which alone are furnished with wings. They build pyramidal structures, ten or twelve feet in height, and divided into appropriate apartments. These are so firmly cemented together, that they will easily bear the weight of four or five men to stand upon them; and in the vast plains of Senegal, they appear like the huts of the natives. After impregnation, the abdomen of the female grows to a prodigious bulk, and she actually protrudes to the amount of eight thousand eggs in twenty-four hours.

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Beside the difference which results from the shape and colour of these animals, the size also makes a considerable one ; some beetles being not larger than the head of a pin, while others, such as the elephant beetle, are as big as one's fist. But the greatest difference among them is, that some are produced in a month, and in a single season go through all the stages of their existence ; while others take near four years to their production, and live as winged insects a year more. To give the history of all these animals, that are bred pretty much in the same way, would be insipid and endless ; it will suffice to select one or two from the number, the origin of which may serve as specimens of the rest. I will, therefore, offer the history of the May-bug to the reader's attention ; premising that most other beetles, though not so long lived, are bred in the same manner.

The May-bug, or dorr-beetle, as some call it, has, like all the rest, a pair of cases to its wings, which are of a reddish brown colour, sprinkled with a whitish dust, which easily comes off. In some years their necks are seen covered with a red plate, and in others with a black ; these, however, are distinct sorts, and their difference is by no means accidental. The fore-legs are very short, and the better calculated for burrowing in the ground, where this insect makes its retreat. It is well known, for its evening buzz, to children ; but still more formidably introduced to the acquaintance of husbandmen and gardeners ; for, in some seasons, it has been found to swarm in such numbers as to eat up every vegetable production.

The two sexes in the May-bug are easily distinguished from each other, by the superior length of the tufts, at the end of the horns, in the male. They begin to copulate in summer ; and at that season they are seen joined together a considerable time. The female being impregnated quickly falls to boring a hole into the ground, where to deposit her burden. This is generally about half a foot deep, and in it she places her eggs ; which are of an oblong shape, with great regularity, one by the other. They are of a bright yellow colour, and no way wrapped up in a common covering, as some have imagined. When the female is lightened of her burden, she again ascends from her hole, to live as before, upon leaves and vegetables, to

buzz in the summer evening, and to lie hid among the branches of trees in the heat of the day.

In about three months after these eggs have been thus deposited in the earth, the contained insect begins to break its shell, and a small grub or maggot crawls forth, and feeds upon the roots of whatever vegetable it happens to be nearest.

All substances of this kind seem equally grateful, yet it is probable the mother insect has a choice among what kind of vegetables she shall deposit her young. In this manner these voracious creatures continue in the worm state for more than three years, devouring the roots of every plant they approach, and making their way under ground, in quest of food, with great dispatch and facility. At length they grow to above the size of a walnut, being a great thick white maggot with a red head, which is seen most frequently in new-turned earth, and which is so eagerly sought after by birds of every species. When largest, they are found an inch and a half long, of a whitish yellow colour, with a body consisting of twelve segments or joints, on each side of which there are nine breathing-holes, and three red feet. The head is large in proportion to the body, of a reddish colour, with a pincer before, and a semi-circular lip, with which it cuts the roots of plants, and sucks out their moisture. As this insect lives entirely under ground it has no occasion for eyes, and accordingly it is found to have none; but is furnished with two feelers, which, like the crutch of a blind man, serve to direct its motion. Such is the form of this animal, that lives for years in the worm-state under ground, still voracious, and every year changing its skin.

It is not till the end of the fourth year, that this extraordinary insect prepares to emerge from its subterraneous abode, and even this is not effected, but by a tedious preparation. About the latter end of autumn, the grub begins to perceive the approach of its transformation: it then buries itself deeper and deeper in the earth, sometimes six feet beneath the surface, and there forms itself a capacious apartment, the walls of which it renders very smooth and shining by the excretions of its body. Its abode being thus formed, it begins, soon after, to shorten itself, to swell, and to burst its last skin, in order to assume the form of a chrysalis.

This, in the beginning, appears of a yellowish colour, which heightens by degrees, till at last it is seen nearly red. Its exterior form plainly discovers all the vestiges of the future winged insect, all the fore-parts being distinctly seen; while behind, the animal seems as if wrapped in swaddling clothes.

The young May-bug continues in this state for about three months longer; and it is not till the beginning of January that the aurelia divests itself of all its impediments, and becomes a winged insect, completely formed. Yet still the animal is far from attaining its natural strength, health, and appetite. It undergoes a kind of infant imbecility; and, unlike most other insects, that the instant they become flies are arrived at their state of full perfection, the May-bug continues feeble and sickly. Its colour is much brighter than in the perfect animal, all its parts are soft, and its voracious nature seems, for a while, to have entirely forsaken it. As the animal is very often found in this state, it is supposed, by those unacquainted with its real history, that the old ones of the former season have buried themselves for the winter, in order to revisit the sun the ensuing summer. But the fact is, the old one never survives the season, but dies, like all the other winged tribe of insects, from the severity of cold in winter.

About the latter end of May, these insects, after having lived for four years under ground, burst from the earth, when the first mild evening invites them abroad. They are at that time seen rising from their long imprisonment, from living only upon roots, and imbibing only the moisture of the earth, to visit the mildness of the summer air, to choose the sweetest vegetables for their banquet, and to drink the dew of the evening. Wherever an attentive observer then walks abroad, he will see them bursting up before him in his pathway, like ghosts on a theatre. He will see every part of the earth, that had its surface beat into hardness, perforated by their egression. When the season is favourable for them, they are seen by myriads buzzing along, hitting against every object that intercepts their flight. The mid-day sun, however, seems too powerful for their constitutions; they then lurk under the leaves and branches of some shady tree: but the willow seems particularly their most favourite food; there they lurk in

clusters, and seldom quit the tree till they have devoured all its verdure. In those seasons which are favourable to their propagation, they are seen in an evening as thick as flakes of snow, and hitting against every object with a sort of capricious blindness. Their duration, however, is but short, as they never survive the season. They begin to join shortly after they have been let loose from their prison, and when the female is impregnated, she cautiously bores a hole in the ground, with an instrument fitted for that purpose, which she is furnished with at the tail, and there deposits her eggs, generally to the number of threescore. If the season and the soil be adapted to their propagation, these soon multiply, as already described, and go through the noxious stages of their contemptible existence. This insect, however, in its worm state, though prejudicial to man, makes one of the chief repasts of the feathered tribe, and is generally the first nourishment with which they supply their young. Rooks and hogs are particularly fond of these worms, and devour them in great numbers. The inhabitants of the county of Norfolk, some time since, went into the practice of destroying their rookeries; but in proportion as they destroyed one plague they were pestered with a greater; and these insects multiplied in such an amazing abundance, as to destroy not only the verdure of the fields, but even the roots of vegetables not yet shot forth. One farm in particular was so injured by them in the year 1751, that the occupier was not able to pay his rent, and the landlord was content not only to lose his income for that year, but also gave money for the support of the farmer and his family. In Ireland they suffered so much by these insects, that they came to a resolution of setting fire to a wood, of some miles in extent, to prevent their mischievous propagation.

Of all the beetle-kind this is the most numerous, and therefore deserves the chief attention of history. The numerous varieties of other kinds might repay the curiosity of the diligent observer, but we must be content in general to observe, that in the great outlines of their history, they resemble those of which we have just been giving a description; like them, all other beetles are bred from the egg, which is deposited in the ground, or sometimes, though seldom, in the barks of trees; they change into a worm; they subsist in

that state by living upon the roots of vegetables, or the succulent parts of the bark round them. They generally live a year at least before they change into an aurelia; in that state they are not entirely motionless, nor entirely swaddled up without form.

It would be tedious and endless to give a description of all; and yet it would be an unpardonable omission not to mention the particularities of some beetles, which are singular rather from their size, their manners, or their formation. That beetle, which the Americans call the Tumble-dung, particularly demands our attention; it is all over of a dusky black, rounder than those animals are generally found to be, and so strong, though not much larger than the common black beetle, that if one of them be put under a brass candlestick, it will cause it to move backwards and forwards, as if it were by an invisible hand, to the admiration of those who are not accustomed to the sight; but this strength is given it for much more useful purposes than those of exciting human curiosity, for there is no creature more laborious, either in seeking subsistence, or in providing a proper retreat for its young. They are endowed with sagacity to discover subsistence by their excellent smelling, which directs them in flights to excrements just fallen from man or beast, on which they instantly drop, and fall unanimously to work in forming round balls or pellets thereof, in the middle of which they lay an egg. These pellets, in September, they convey three feet deep in the earth, where they lie till the approach of spring; when the eggs are hatched the nests burst, and the insects find their way out of the earth. They assist each other with indefatigable industry, in rolling these globular pellets to the place where they are to be buried. This they are to perform with the tail foremost, by raising up their hinder part, and shoving along the ball with their hind-feet. They are always accompanied with other beetles of a larger size, and of a more elegant structure and colour. The breast of this is covered with a shield of a crimson colour, and shining like metal; the head is of the like colour, mixed with green, and on the crown of the head stands a shining black horn, bended backwards. These are called the kings of the beetles; but for what reason is uncertain, since they partake of the same dirty drudgery with the rest

The Elephant-Beetle is the largest of this kind hitherto known, and is found in South America, particularly Guiana and Surinam, as well as about the river Oroonoko. It is of a black colour, and the whole body is covered with a very hard shell, full as thick and as strong as that of a small crab. Its length, from the hinder parts to the eyes, is almost four inches, and from the same part to the end of the proboscis, or trunk, four inches and three quarters. The transverse diameter of the body is two inches and a quarter, and the breadth of each elytron, or case for the wings, is an inch and three-tenths. The antennæ, or feelers, are quite horny; for which reason the proboscis, or trunk, is moveable at its insertion into the head, and seems to supply the place of feelers. The horns are eight-tenths of an inch long, and terminate in points. The proboscis is an inch and a quarter long, and turns upwards, making a crooked line, terminating in two horns, each of which is near a quarter of an inch long; but they are not perforated at the end like the proboscis of other insects. About four-tenths of an inch above the head, or that side next the body, is a prominence, or small horn, which, if the rest of the trunk were away, would cause this part to resemble the horn of a rhinoceros. There is indeed a beetle so called, but then the horns, or trunk has no fork at the end, though the lower horn resembles this.* The feet are all forked at the end, but not like lobster's claws.*

To this class we may also refer the Glow-worm, that little animal which makes such a distinguished figure in the descriptions of our poets. No two insects can differ more than the male and female of this species from each other. The male is in every respect a beetle, having cases to its wings, and rising in the air at pleasure; the female, on the contrary, has none, but is entirely a creeping insect, and is obliged to wait the approaches of her capricious companion. The body of the female has eleven joints, with a shield breast-plate, the shape of which is oval; the head is placed over this, and is very small, and the three last joints of her

* The crepitating Beetle has a very singular method of defending itself, and annoying its enemies. Whenever it is touched, it makes a report, not unlike the discharge of a musket in miniature; and this discharge is accompanied with a blue vapour highly acrimonious and pungent.

body are of a yellowish colour; but what distinguishes it from all other animals, at least in this part of the world, is the shining light which it emits by night, and which is supposed by some philosophers to be an emanation which she sends forth to allure the male to her company. Most travellers who have gone through sandy countries, must well remember the little shining sparks with which the ditches are studded on each side of the road. If incited by curiosity to approach more nearly, he will find this light sent forth by the glow-worm; if he should keep the little animal for some time, its light continues to grow paler, and at last appears totally extinct. The manner in which this light is produced has hitherto continued inexplicable; it is probable the little animal is supplied with some electrical powers, so that by rubbing the joints of its body against each other, it thus supplies a stream of light, which if it allures the male, as we are told, serves for very useful purposes.

The Cantharis is of the beetle kind, from whence come cantharides, well known in the shops by the name of Spanish flies, and for their use in blisters. They have feelers like bristles, flexible cases to the wings, a breast pretty plain, and the sides of the belly wrinkled. Cantharides differ from each other in their size, shape, and colour: those used in the shops also do the same. The largest in these parts are about an inch long, and as much in circumference; but others are not above three quarters of an inch. Some are of a pure azure colour, others of pure gold, and others again have a mixture of pure gold and azure colours; but they are all very brilliant, and extremely beautiful. These insects, as is well known, are of the greatest benefit to mankind, making a part in many medicines conducive to human preservation. They are chiefly natives of Spain, Italy, and Portugal; but they are to be met with also about Paris in the summer time, upon the leaves of the ash, the poplar, and the rose-trees, and also among wheat, and in meadows. It is very certain, that these insects are fond of ash-leaves, insomuch that they will sometimes strip one of these trees quite bare. Some affirm that these flies delight in sweet-smelling herbs; and it is very certain, that they are fond of honeysuckles, lilac, and wild-cherry shrubs; but some that have sought after them declare they never could find them on elder-trees, nut-trees, and among

wheat. We are told, that the country people expect the return of these insects every seven years. It is very certain, that such a number of these insects have been seen together in the air, that they appeared like swarms of bees; and that they have so disagreeable a smell, that it may be perceived a great way off, especially about sunset, though they are not seen at that time. This bad smell is a guide for those who make it their business to catch them. When they are caught they dry them, after which they are so light, that fifty will hardly weigh a drachm. Those that gather them tie them in a bag, or a piece of linen cloth, that has been well worn, and then they kill them with the vapours of hot vinegar, after which they dry them in the sun, and keep them in boxes. These flies, thus dried, being chymically analysed, yield a great deal of volatile caustic salt, mixed with a little oil, phlegm, and earth. Cantharides are penetrating, corrosive, and, applied to the skin, raise blisters, from whence proceeds a great deal of serosity. They are made use of both inwardly and outwardly. However, it is somewhat strange that the effects of these flies should fall principally upon the urinary passages; for though some authors have endeavoured to account for this, we are still in the dark, for all they have said amounts to no more than that they affect these parts in a manner which may be very learnedly described, but very obscurely comprehended.

An insect of great, though perhaps not equal use in medicine, is that which is known by the name of the Kermes; it is produced in the excrescence of an oak, called the berry-bearing ilex, and appears at first wrapt up in a membranaceous bladder, of the size of a pea, smooth and shining, of a brownish-red colour, and covered with a very fine ash-coloured powder. This bag teems with a number of reddish eggs or insects, which being rubbed with the fingers pour out a crimson liquor. It is only met with in warm countries in the months of May and June. In the month of April this insect becomes of the size and shape of a pea, and its eggs some time after burst from the womb, and soon turning worms, run about the branches and leaves of the tree. They are of two sexes, and the females have been hitherto described; but the males are very distinct from the former, and are a sort of small flies like gnats, with six feet,

of which the four forward are short, and the two backward long, divided into four joints, and armed with three crooked nails. There are two feelers on the head, a line and a half long, which are moveable, streaked, and articulated. The tail, at the back part of the body, is half a line long, and forked. The whole body is covered with two transparent wings, and they leap about in the manner of fleas. The harvest of the kermes is greater or less in proportion to the severity of the winter, and the women gather them before sun-rising, tearing them off with their nails, for fear there should be any loss from the hatching of the insects. They sprinkle them with vinegar, and lay them in the sun to dry, where they acquire a red colour.

An insect, perhaps, still more useful than either of the former, is the *Cochineal*, which has been very variously described by authors; some have supposed it a vegetable exerescence from the tree upon which it is found; some have described it as a louse; some, as a bug; and some, as a beetle. As they appear in our shops when brought from America, they are of an irregular shape, convex on one side, and a little concave on the other; but are both marked with transverse streaks or wrinkles. They are of a scarlet colour within, and without of a blackish red, and sometimes of a white, reddish, or ash-colour, which are accounted the best, and are brought us from Mexico. The cochineal insect is of an oval form, of the size of a small pea, with six feet, and a snout or trunk. It brings forth its young alive, and is nourished by sucking the juice of the plant. Its body consists of several rings, and when it is once fixed on the plant, it continues immoveable, being subject to no change. Some pretend there are two sorts, the one domestic, which is best; and the other wild, that is of a vivid colour: however, they appear to be the same, only with this difference, that the wild feeds upon uncultivated trees, without any assistance, whereas the domestic is carefully, at a stated season, removed to cultivated trees, where it feeds upon a purer juice. Those who take care of these insects, place them on the prickly pear-plant in a certain order, and are very industrious in defending them from other insects; for if any other kind come among them, they take care to brush them off with foxes' tails. Towards the end of the year, when the rains and cold wea-

ther are coming on, which are fatal to these insects, they take off the leaves or branches covered with cochineal, that have not attained their utmost degree of perfection, and keep them in their houses till winter is past. These leaves are very thick and juicy, and supply them with sufficient nourishment, while they remain within doors. When the milder weather returns, and these animals are about to exclude their young, the natives make them nests, like those of birds, but less, of tree-moss, or soft hay, or the down of cocoa-nuts, placing twelve in every nest. These they fix on the thorns of the prickly-pear plant, and in three or four days' time they bring forth their young, which leave their nests in a few days, and creep upon the branches of the plant, till they find a proper place to rest in, and take in their nourishment; and until the females are fecundated by the males, which, as in the former tribe, differ very widely from the females, being winged insects, whereas the others only creep, and are at most stationary. When they are impregnated, they produce a new offspring, so that the propagator has a new harvest thrice a year. When the native Americans have gathered the cochineal, they put them into holes in the ground, where they kill them with boiling water, and afterwards dry them in the sun, or in an oven, or lay them upon hot plates. From the various methods of killing them, arise the different colours which they appear in when brought to us. While they are living they seem to be sprinkled over with a white powder, which they lose as soon as the boiling water is poured upon them. Those that are dried upon hot plates are the blackest. What we call the cochineal are only the females, for the males are a sort of fly, as already observed in the kermes. They are used both for dying and medicine, and are said to have much the same virtue as the kermes, though they are now seldom used alone, but are mixed with other things for the sake of the colour.

I shall end this account of the beetle tribe with the history of an animal which cannot properly be ranked under this species, and yet cannot be more methodically ranged under any other. This is the insect that forms and resides in the gall-nut, the spoils of which are converted to such useful purposes. The gall-insects are bred in a sort of bodies adhering to a kind of oak in Asia, which differ with regard to their colour, size, roughness, smoothness, and shape,

and which we call galls. They are not fruit, as some have imagined, but preternatural tumours, owing to the wounds given to the buds, leaves, and twigs of the tree, by a kind of insects that lay their eggs within them. This animal is furnished with an implement, by which the female penetrates into the bark of the tree, or into that spot which just begins to bud, and there sheds a drop of corrosive fluid into the cavity. Having thus formed a receptacle for her eggs, she deposits them in the place, and dies soon after. The heart of the bud being thus wounded, the circulation of the nutritive juice is interrupted, and the fermentation thereof, with the poison injected by the fly, burns the parts adjacent, and then alters the natural colour of the plant. The juice or sap, turned back from its natural course, extravasates, and flows round the egg. After which it swells and dilates by the assistance of some bubbles of air, which get admission through the pores of the bark, and which run in the vessels with the sap. The external coat of this excrescence is dried by the air, and grows into a figure, which bears some resemblance to the bow of an arch, or the roundness of a kernel. This little ball receives its nutriment, growth, and vegetation, as the other parts of the tree, by slow degrees, and is what we call the *gall-nut*. The worm that is hatched under this spacious vault finds in the substance of the ball, which is as yet very tender, a subsistence suitable to its nature; gnaws and digests it till the time comes for its transformation to a nymph, and from that state of existence changes into a fly. After this, the insect perceiving itself duly provided with all things requisite, disengages itself soon from its confinement, and takes its flight into the open air. The case, however, is not similar with respect to the gall-nut that grows in autumn. The cold weather frequently comes on before the worm is transformed into a fly, or before the fly can pierce through its inclosure. The nut falls with the leaves, and although you may imagine that the fly which lies within is lost, yet in reality it is not so; on the contrary, its being covered up so close, is the means of its preservation. Thus it spends the winter in a warm house, where every crack and cranny of the nut is well stopped up; and lies buried, as it were, under a heap of leaves, which preserves it from the injuries of the weather. This apartment, however, though so commodious a retreat in the winter, is a perfect

prison in the spring. The fly, roused out of its lethargy by the first heats, breaks its way through, and ranges where it pleases. A very small aperture is sufficient, since at this time the fly is but a diminutive creature. Besides, the ringlets whereof its body is composed, dilate, and become pliant in the passage.*

CHAP. VII.

OF THE GNAT AND TIPULA.

THERE are two insects which entirely resemble each other in their form, and yet widely differ in their habits, manners, and propagation. Those who have seen the tipula, or long-legs, and the larger kind of gnat, have most probably mistaken the one for the other; they have often accused the tipula, a harmless insect, of depredations made by the gnat, and the innocent have suffered for the guilty; indeed the differences in their form are so very minute, that it often requires the assistance of a microscope to distinguish the one from the other: they are both mounted on long legs, both furnished with two wings and a slender body: their heads are large, and they seem to be hump-backed; the chief and only difference, therefore, is, that the tipula wants a trunk, while the gnat has a large one, which it often exerts to very mischievous purposes. The tipula is a harmless, peaceful insect, that offers injury to nothing; the gnat is sanguinary and predaceous, ever seeking out for a place in which to bury its trunk, and pumping up the blood from the animal in large quantities.

The gnat proceeds from a little worm, which is usually seen at the bottom of standing waters. The manner in

* To the beetle kind also belongs that little animal which causes such alarm to the superstitious by its ticking noise, and which is often called the death-watch. It is found in decayed trees and furniture, or among hay and dried leaves. This noise is merely the call of one sex to the other, and is caused by the animal's beating on any hard substance with the shield or fore part of the head; which is always in seven, nine, or eleven distinct strokes. A little insect, hardly the tenth of an inch long, often found in old books, is sometimes falsely charged with this alarm.

which the insect lays its eggs is particularly curious ; after having laid the proper number on the surface of the water, it surrounds them with a kind of unctuous matter, which prevents them from sinking, but at the same time fastens them with a thread to the bottom, to prevent their floating away, at the mercy of every breeze, from a place, the warmth of which is proper for their production, to any other, where the water may be too cold, or the animals' enemies too numerous. Thus the insects, in their egg state, resemble a buoy, which is fixed by an anchor. As they come to maturity they sink deeper ; and at last, when they leave the egg as worms, they creep at the bottom. They now make themselves lodgments of cements, which they fasten to some solid body at the very bottom of the water, unless, by accident, they meet with a piece of chalk, which being of a soft and pliant nature, gives them an opportunity of sinking a retreat for themselves, where nothing but the claws of a cray-fish can possibly molest them. The worm afterwards changes its form. It appears with a large head, and a tail invested with hair, and moistened with an oleaginous liquor, which she makes use of as a cork to sustain her head in the air ; and her tail in the water, and to transport her from one place to another. When the oil, with which her tail is moistened, begins to grow dry, she discharges out of her mouth an unctuous humour, which she sheds all over her tail, by virtue whereof she is enabled to transport herself where she pleases, without being either wet or any ways incommoded by the water. The gnat, in her second state, is, properly speaking, in her form a nymph, which is an introduction or entrance into a new life. In the first place, she divests herself of her second skin ; in the next, she resigns her eyes, her antennæ, and her tail ; in short, she actually seems to expire. However, from the spoils of the amphibious animal, a little winged insect cuts the air, whose every part is active to the last degree, and whose whole structure is the just object of our admiration. Its little head is adorned with a plume of feathers, and its whole body invested with scales and hair, to secure it from any wet or dust. She makes trial of the activity of her wings, by rubbing them either against her body, or her broad side-bags, which keep her in an equilibrium. The furbelow, or little border of fine feathers, which graces her wings, is very curious, and strikes

the eye in the most agreeable manner. There is nothing, however, of greater importance to the gnat than her trunk, and that weak implement may justly be deemed one of Nature's master-pieces. It is so very small, that the extremity of it can scarcely be discerned through the best microscope that can be procured. That part which is at first obvious to the eye, is nothing but a long scaly sheath under the throat. At near the distance of two-thirds of it, there is an aperture, through which the insect darts out four stings, and afterwards retracts them. One of which, however sharp and active it may be, is no more than the case in which the other three lie concealed, and run in a long groove. The sides of these stings are sharpened like two-edged swords; they are likewise barbed, and have a vast number of cutting teeth towards the point, which turns up like a hook, and is fine beyond expression. When all these darts are stuck into the flesh of animals, sometimes one after another, and sometimes all at once, the blood and humours of the adjacent parts must unavoidably be extravasated; upon which a tumour must consequently ensue, the little orifice whereof is closed up by the compression of the external air. When the gnat, by the point of her case, which she makes use of as a tongue, has tasted any fruit, flesh, or juice, that she has found out; if it be a fluid, she sucks it up, without playing her darts into it; but in case she finds the least obstruction by any flesh whatever, she exerts her strength, and pierces through it, if possibly she can. After this she draws back her stings into their sheath, which she applies to the wound in order to extract, as through a reed, the juices which she finds inclosed. This is the implement with which the gnat performs her work in the summer, for during the winter she has no manner of occasion for it. Then she ceases to eat, and spends all that tedious season either in quarries or in caverns, which she abandons at the return of summer, and flies about in search after some commodious ford, or standing water, where she may produce her progeny, which would be soon washed away and lost, by the too rapid motion of any running stream. The little brood are sometimes so numerous, that the very water is tinged according to the colour of the species, as green, if they be green, and of a sanguine hue, if they be red.

These are circumstances sufficiently remarkable to

life of this little animal ; but it offers something still more curious in the method of its propagation. However similar insects of the gnat kind are in their appearance, yet they differ widely from each other in the manner in which they are brought forth, for some are oviparous, and are produced from eggs : some are viviparous, and come forth in their most perfect form ; some are males, and unite with the female ; some are females, requiring the impregnation of the male ; some are of neither sex, yet still produce young, without any copulation whatsoever. This is one of the strangest discoveries in all natural history ! A gnat separated from the rest of its kind, and inclosed in a glass vessel, with air sufficient to keep it alive, shall produce young, which also, when separated from each other, shall be the parents of a numerous progeny. Thus, down for five or six generations, do these extraordinary animals propagate without the use of copulation, without any congress between the male and the female, but in the manner of vegetables, the young bursting from the body of their parents, without any previous impregnation. At the sixth generation, however, their propagation stops ; the gnat no longer produces its like, from itself alone, but it requires the access of the male to give it another succession of fecundity.

The gnat of Europe gives but little uneasiness ; it is sometimes heard to hum about our beds at night, and keeps off the approaches of sleep by the apprehension its causes ; but it is very different in the ill-peopled regions of America ; where the waters stagnate, and the climate is warm, and where they are produced in multitudes beyond expression. The whole air is there filled with clouds of those famished insects, and they are found of all sizes, from six inches long to a minuteness that even requires the microscope to have a distinct perception of them. The warmth of the mid-day sun is too powerful for their constitutions ; but when the evening approaches, neither art nor flight can shield the wretched inhabitants from their attacks ; though millions are destroyed, still millions more succeed, and produce unceasing torment. The native Indians, who anoint their bodies with oil, and who have from their infancy been used to their depredations, find them much less inconvenient than those who are newly arrived from Europe ; they sleep in their cottages covered all over with thousands of the gnat kind

upon their bodies, and yet do not seem to have their slumbers disturbed by their cruel devourers. If a candle happens to be lighted in one of those places, a cloud of insects at once light upon the flame, and extinguish it: they are therefore obliged to keep their candles in glass lanterns; a miserable expedient to prevent an unceasing calamity!

BOOK V.

OF THE ZOOPHYTES,

CHAP. I.

OF ZOOPHYTES IN GENERAL.

WE now come to the last link in the chain of animated nature, to a class of beings so confined in their powers, and so defective in their formation, that some historians have been at a loss whether to consider them as a superior rank of vegetables, or the humblest order of the animated tribe. In order, therefore, to give them a denomination, agreeable to their existence, they have been called *Zoophytes*, a name implying vegetable nature endued with animal life; and, indeed, in some the marks of the animal are so few, that it is difficult to give their place in nature with precision, or to tell whether it is a plant or an insect that is the object of our consideration.

Should it be asked what it is that constitutes the difference between animal and vegetable life; what it is that lays the line that separates those two great kingdoms from each other; it would be difficult, perhaps we should find it impossible, to return an answer. The power of motion can-

not form this distinction, since some vegetables are possessed of motion, and many animals are totally without it. The sensitive plant has obviously a greater variety of motions than the oyster or the pholas. The animal that fills the acorn-shell is immoveable, and can only close its lid to defend itself from external injury, while the flower, which goes by the name of the fly-trap, seems to close upon the flies that light upon it, and that attempt to rifle it of its honey. The animal in this instance seems to have scarce a power of self-defence; the vegetable not only guards its possessions, but seizes upon the robber that would venture to invade them. In like manner, the methods of propagation give no superiority to the lower rank of animals. On the contrary, vegetables are frequently produced more conformably to the higher ranks of the creation, and though some plants are produced by cuttings from others, yet the general manner of propagation is from seeds, laid in the womb of the earth, where they are hatched into the similitude of the parent plant or flower. But a most numerous tribe of animals have lately been discovered, which are propagated by cuttings, and this in so extraordinary a manner, that, though the original insect be divided into a thousand parts, each, however small, shall be formed into an animal, entirely resembling that which was at first divided: in this respect, therefore, certain races of animals seem to fall beneath vegetables, by their more imperfect propagation.

What, therefore, is the distinction between them? or are the orders so intimately blended as that it is impossible to mark the boundaries of each? To me it would seem, that all animals are possessed of one power, of which vegetables are totally deficient; I mean, either the actual ability, or an awkward attempt at self-preservation. However vegetables may seem possessed of this important quality, yet it is with them but a mechanical impulse, resembling the raising one end of the lever when you depress the other: the sensitive plant contracts and hangs its leaves indeed, when touched, but this motion no way contributes to its safety; the fly-trap flower acts entirely in the same manner; and though it seems to seize the little animal that comes to annoy it, yet, in reality, only closes mechanically upon it, and this inclosure neither contributes to its preservation nor its defence. But it is very different with

insects, even of the lowest order ; the earth-worm not only contracts, but hides itself in the earth, and escapes with some share of swiftness from its pursuers. The polypus hides its horns ; the star-fish contracts its arms upon the appearance even of distant dangers ; they not only hunt for their food, but provide for their safety ; and however imperfectly they may be formed, yet still they are in reality placed many degrees above the highest vegetable of the earth, and are possessed of many animal functions, as well as those that are more elaborately formed.

But though these be superior to plants, they are far beneath their animated fellows of existence. In the class of zoophytes, we may place all those animals which may be propagated by cuttings ; or, in other words, which, if divided into two or more parts, each part in time becomes a separate and perfect animal ; the head shoots forth a tail, and, on the contrary, the tail produces a head ; some of these will bear dividing but into two parts, such is the earth-worm ; some may be divided into more than two, and of this kind are many of the star-fish ; others still may be cut into a thousand parts, each becoming a perfect animal ; they may be turned inside out, like the finger of a glove ; they may be moulded into all manner of shapes, yet still their vivacious principle remains, still every single part becomes perfect in its kind, and after a few days' existence, exhibits all the arts and industry of its contemptible parent ! We shall therefore divide zoophytes according to their several degrees of perfection, namely, into worms, star-fish, and polypi ; contenting ourselves with a short review of those nauseous and despicable creatures, that excite our curiosity chiefly by their imperfections ; it must not be concealed, however, that much has of late been written on this part of natural history. A new mode of animal production, could not fail of exciting not only the curiosity, but the astonishment of every philosopher : many found their favourite systems totally overthrown by the discovery ; and it was not without a wordy struggle, that they gave up what had formerly been their pleasure and their pride. At last, however, conviction became too strong for argument ; and a question, which owed its general spread rather to its novelty than to its importance, was given up in favour of the new discovery.

CHAP. II.

OF WORMS.

THE first in the class of zoophytes, are animals of the worm kind, which being entirely destitute of feet, trail themselves along upon the ground, and find themselves a retreat under the earth, or in the water. As these, like serpents, have a creeping motion, so both, in general, go under the common appellation of reptiles; a loathsome, noxious, malignant tribe, to which man by nature, as well as by religion, has the strongest antipathy. But though worms, as well as serpents, are mostly without feet, and have been doomed to creep along the earth on their bellies, yet their motions are very different. The serpent, as has been said before, having a back-bone, which it is incapable of contracting, bends its body into the form of a bow, and then shoots forward from the tail; but it is very different with the worm, which has a power of contracting or lengthening itself at will. There is a spiral muscle that runs round its whole body, from the head to the tail, somewhat resembling a wire wound round a walking-cane, which when slipped off, and one end extended and held fast, will bring the other nearer to it; in this manner the earth-worm, having shot out, or extended its body, takes hold by the slime of the fore part of its body, and so contracts and brings forward the hinder part; in this manner it moves onward, not without great efforts; but the occasions for its progressive motion are few.

As it is designed for living under the earth, and leading a life of obscurity, so it seems tolerably adapted to its situation. Its body is armed with small stiff sharp burrs or prickles, which it can erect or depress at pleasure; under the skin there lies a slimy juice, to be ejected as occasion requires, at certain perforations, between the rings of the muscles, to lubricate its body, and facilitate its passage into the earth. Like most other insects, it has breathing-holes along the back, adjoining each ring; but is without bones, without eyes, without ears, and properly without feet. It has a mouth, and also an alimentary canal, which runs along to the very point of the tail. In some worms, however, parti-

cularly such as are found in the bodies of animals, this canal opens towards the middle of the belly, at some distance from the tail. The intestines of the earth-worm are always found filled with a very fine earth, which seems to be the only nourishment these animals are capable of receiving.

The animal is entirely without a brain, but near the head is placed the heart, which is seen to beat with a very distinct motion, and round it are the spermatie vessels, forming a number of little globules, containing a milky fluid, which have an opening into the belly, not far from the head; they are also often found to contain a number of eggs, which are laid in the earth, and are hatched in twelve or fourteen days into life, by the genial warmth of their situation; like snails, all these animals unite in themselves both sexes at once; the reptile that impregnates, being impregnated in turn: few that walk out, but must have observed them, with their heads laid against each other, and so strongly attached, that they suffer themselves to be trode upon.

When the eggs are laid in the earth, which, in about fourteen days, as has been said, are hatched into maturity, the young ones come forth very small, but perfectly formed, and suffer no change during their existence; how long their life continues is not well known, but it certainly holds for more than two or three seasons. During the winter, they bury themselves deeper in the earth, and seem, in some measure, to share the general torpidity of the insect tribe. In spring, they revive with the rest of nature, and on those occasions, a moist or dewy evening brings them forth from their retreats, for the universal purpose of continuing their kind. They chiefly live in a light, rich, and fertile soil, moistened by dews or accidental showers, but avoid those places where the water is apt to lie on the surface of the earth, or where the clay is too stiff for their easy progression under ground.

Helpless as they are formed, yet they seem very vigilant in avoiding those animals that chiefly make them their prey; in particular, the mole, who feeds entirely upon them beneath the surface, and who seldom ventures, from the dimness of its sight, into the open air; him they avoid, by darting up from the earth the instant they feel the ground move; and fishermen, who are well acquainted with this, take them in what numbers they choose, by stirring the earth where they

expect to find them. They are also driven from their retreats under ground, by pouring bitter or acrid water thereon, such as that water in which green walnuts have been steeped, or a ley made of pot-ashes.

Such is the general outline of the history of these reptiles, which, as it should seem, degrades them no way beneath the rank of other animals of the insect creation: but now we come to a part of their history which proves the imperfection of their organs, from the easiness with which these little machines may be damaged and repaired again. It is well known in mechanics, that the finest and most complicated instruments are the most easily put out of order, and the most difficultly set right; the same also obtains in the animal machine. Man, the most complicated machine of all others, whose nerves are more numerous, and powers of action more various, is most easily destroyed; he is seen to die under wounds which a quadruped or a bird could easily survive; and as we descend gradually to the lower ranks, the ruder the composition, the more difficult it is to disarrange it. Some animals live without their limbs, and often are seen to reproduce them; some are seen to live without their brain for many weeks together; caterpillars continue to increase and grow large, though all their nobler organs are entirely destroyed within; some animals continue to exist, though cut in two, their nobler parts preserving life, while the others perish that were cut away; but the earth-worm, and all the zoophyte tribe, continue to live in separate parts, and one animal, by the means of cutting, is divided into two distinct existences, sometimes into a thousand!

There is no phenomenon in all natural history more astonishing than this, that man at pleasure should have a kind of creative power, and out of one life make two, each completely formed, with all its apparatus and functions; each with its perceptions, and powers of motion and self-preservation; each as complete in all respects as that from which it derived its existence, and equally enjoying the humble gratifications of its nature.

When Des Cartes first started the opinion, that brutes were machines, the discovery of this surprising propagation was unknown, which might, in some measure, have strengthened his fanciful theory. What is life in brutes, he might have said, or where does it reside? In some we find it so

diffused, that every part seems to maintain a vivacious principle, and the same animal appears possessed of a thousand distinct irrational souls at the same time. But let us not, he would say, give so noble a name to such contemptible powers, but rank the vivifying principle in these with the sap that rises in vegetables, or the moisture that contracts a cord, or the heat that puts water into motion ! Nothing, in fact, deserves the name of soul, but that which reasons, that which understands, and by knowing God, receives the mark of its currency, and is minted with the impression of its great Creator.

Such might have been the speculations of this philosopher : however, to leave theory, it will be sufficient to say, that we owe the first discovery of this power of reproduction in animals to Mr. Trembley, who first observed it in the Polypus, and after him, Spalanzani and others found it taking place in the earth-worm, the sea-worm, and several other ill-formed animals of a like kind, which were susceptible of this new mode of propagation. This last philosopher has tried several experiments upon the earth-worm, many of which succeeded according to his expectation : every earth-worm, however, did not retain the vivacious principle with the same obstinacy ; some, when cut in two, were entirely destroyed ; others survived only in the nobler part ; and while the head was living, the tail entirely perished, and a new one was seen to bourgeon from the extremity. But what was most surprising of all, in some, particularly in the small red-headed earth-worm, both extremities survived the operation ; the head produced a tail, with the anus, the intestines, the annular muscle, and the prickly beards ; the tail part, on the other hand, was seen to shoot forth the nobler organs, and in less than the space of three months sent forth a head, a heart, with all the apparatus and instruments of generation. This part, as may easily be supposed, was produced much more slowly than the former, a new head taking above three or four months for its completion ; a new tail being shot forth in less than as many weeks. Thus two animals, by dissection, were made out of one, each with their separate appetites, each endued with life and motion, and seemingly as perfect as that single animal from whence they derived their origin.

What was performed upon the earth-worm was found to

obtain also in many of the vermicular species. The sea-worm, the white water-worm, and many of those little worms with feelers, found at the bottom of dirty ditches; in all these the nobler organs are of such little use, that if taken away, the animal does not seem to feel the want of them; it lives in all its parts, and in every part; and by a strange paradox in nature, the most useless and contemptible life is of all others the most difficult to destroy.*

CHAP. III.

OF THE STAR-FISH.

THE next order of zoophytes is that of the star-fish, a numerous tribe, shapeless and deformed, assuming at different times different appearances. The same animal that now appears round like a ball, shortly after flattens as thin as a plate. All of this kind are formed of a semi-transparent gelatinous substance, covered with a thin membrane, and to an inattentive spectator often appear like a lump of inanimate jelly, floating at random upon the surface of the sea, or thrown by chance on shore at the departure of the tide.

* Allied to these in their vermicular shape, are several other kinds of worms, commonly known by the name of Thread-worms.—The common Hair-worm is found in fresh waters, or in a wet clayey soil, through which it perforates. In size and appearance it exactly resembles the hair of a horse's tail; and when touched, twists itself into a variety of knot-like contortions, for which reason it has been called the Gordius. The Guinea-worm is shaped something like this, except that the mouth is dilated, and has a roundish concave lip. It enters the naked arms and legs of the inhabitants of the East and West Indies, sinking deep into the muscles, and frequently occasioning inflammation and fever. The Fury is a still more dangerous worm, and has on each side a single row of closely pressed reflected prickles. It is found in Finland and the northern parts of Sweden, in marshy places, where it crawls up the stems of sedge-grass and low shrubs; and being wafted by the wind, darts into the naked parts of such as may happen to be near it. The celebrated naturalist, Sir Charles Linné, was so severely bitten by one of these dreadful animals, that for some time it was doubtful whether he would live or die.

But upon a more minute inspection, they will be found possessed of life and motion; they will be found to shoot forth their arms in every direction, in order to seize upon such insects as are near, and to devour them with great rapacity. Worms, the spawn of fish, and even mussels themselves, with their hard resisting shell, have been found in the stomachs of these voracious animals; and what is very extraordinary, though the substance of their own bodies be almost as soft as water, yet they are no way injured by swallowing these shells, which are almost of a stony hardness. They increase in size as all other animals do. In summer, when the water of the sea is warmed by the heat of the sun, they float upon the surface, and in the dark they send forth a kind of shining light resembling that of phosphorus. Some have given these animals the name of sea-nettles, because they burn the hands of those that touch them, as nettles are found to do. They are often seen fastened to the rocks, and to the largest sea-shells, as if to derive their nourishment from them. If they be taken and put into spirit of wine, they will continue for many years entire; but if they be left to the influence of the air, they are, in less than four and twenty hours, melted down into limpid and offensive water.

In all of this species, none are found to possess a vent for their excrements; but the same passage by which they devour their food, serves for the ejection of their fæces. These animals, as was said, take such a variety of figures, that it is impossible to describe them under one determinate shape; but in general their bodies resemble a truncated cone, whose base is applied to the rock to which they are found usually attached. Though generally transparent, yet they are found of different colours, some inclining to green, some to red, some to white, and some to brown. In some, their colours appear diffused over the whole surface, in some they are often streaked, and in others often spotted. They are possessed of a very slow progressive motion, and in fine weather they are continually seen, stretching out, and fishing for their prey. Many of them are possessed of a number of long slender filaments, in which they entangle any small animals they happen to approach, and thus draw them into their enormous stomachs, which fill the whole cavity of their bodies. The harder shells continue for some weeks undi-

gested, but at length they undergo a kind of maceration in the stomach, and become a part of the substance of the animal itself. The indigestible parts are returned by the same aperture by which they were swallowed, and then the starfish begins to fish for more. These also may be cut in pieces, and every part will survive the operation; each becoming a perfect animal, endued with its natural rapacity. Of this tribe, the number is various, and the description of each would be tedious and uninteresting; the manners and nature of all are nearly as described: but I will just make mention of one creature, which, though not properly belonging to this class, yet is so nearly related, that the passing it in silence would be an unpardonable omission.

Of all other animals, the Cuttle-fish, though in some respects superior to this tribe, possesses qualities the most extraordinary. It is about two feet long, covered with a very thin skin, and its flesh composed of a gelatinous substance, which, however, within-side, is strengthened by a strong bone, of which such great use is made by the goldsmith. It is possessed of eight arms, which it extends, and which are probably of service to it in fishing for its prey; while in life, it is capable of lengthening or contracting these at pleasure; but when dead, they contract, and lose their rigidity. They feed upon small fish, which they seize with their arms; and they are bred from eggs, which are laid upon the weeds along the sea-shore.

The cuttle-fish is found along many of the coasts of Europe, but are not easily caught, from a contrivance with which they are furnished by nature; this is a black substance, of the colour of ink, which is contained in a bladder generally on the left side of the belly, and which is ejected in the manner of an excrement from the anus. Whenever, therefore, this fish is pursued, and when it finds a difficulty of escaping, it spurts forth a great quantity of this black liquor, by which the waters are totally darkened, and then it escapes by lying close at the bottom. In this manner the creature finds its safety; and men find ample cause for admiration, from the great variety of stratagems with which creatures are endued for their peculiar preservation.

CHAP. IV.

OF THE POLYPUS.

THOSE animals which we have described in the last chapter are variously denominated. They have been called the Star-fish, Sea-nettles, and Sea-polypi. This last name has been peculiarly ascribed to them by the ancients, because of the number of feelers or feet of which they are all possessed, and with which they have a slow progressive motion; but the moderns have given the name of Polypus to a reptile that lives in fresh water, by no means so large or observable. These are found at the bottom of wet ditches, or attached to the under surface of the broad-leaved plants that grow and swim on the waters. The same difference holds between these and the sea-water polypus; as between all the productions of the sea, and of the land and the ocean. The marine vegetables and animals grow to a monstrous size. The eel, the pike, or the bream, of fresh-waters, is but small; but in the sea they grow to an enormous magnitude. The herbs of the field are at most but a few feet high; those of the sea often shoot forth a stalk of a hundred. It is so between the Polypi of both elements. Those of the sea are found from two feet in length to three or four, and Pliny has even described one, the arms of which were no less than thirty feet long. Those in fresh waters, however, are comparatively minute; at their utmost size seldom above three parts of an inch long, and when gathered up into their usual form, not above a third even of those dimensions.

It was upon these minute animals that the power of dissection was first tried in multiplying their numbers. They had been long considered as little worthy the attention of observers, and were consigned to that neglect in which thousands of minute species of insects remain to this very day. It is true, indeed, that Reaumur observed, classed and named them. By contemplating their motions, he was enabled distinctly to pronounce on their being of the animal, and not of the vegetable kingdom; and he called them polypi, from their great resemblance to those larger ones that were found

in the ocean. Still, however, their properties were neglected, and their history unknown.

Mr. Trembley was the person to whom we owe the first discovery of the amazing properties and powers of this little vivacious creature. He divided this class of animals into four different kinds: into those inclining to green, those of a brownish cast, those of a flesh-colour, and those which he calls the *polype de panache*. The differences of structure in these, as also of colour, are observable enough; but the manner of their subsisting, of seizing their prey, and of their propagation, is pretty nearly the same in all.

Whoever has looked with care into the bottom of a wet ditch when the water is stagnant, and the sun has been powerful, may remember to have seen many little transparent lumps of jelly, about the size of a pea, and flatted on one side; such also as have examined the under side of the broad-leaved weeds that grow on the surface of the water, must have observed them studded with a number of these little jelly-like substances, which were probably then disregarded, because their nature and history were unknown. These little substances, however, were no other than living polypi, gathered up into a quiescent state, and seemingly inanimate, because either undisturbed, or not excited by the calls of appetite to action. When they are seen exerting themselves, they put on a very different appearance from that when at rest: to conceive a just idea of their figure, we may suppose the finger of a glove cut off at the bottom; we may suppose also several threads or horns planted round the edge like a fringe. The hollow of this finger will give us an idea of the stomach of the animal; the threads issuing forth from the edges may be considered as the arms or feelers with which it hunts for its prey. The animal, at its greatest extent, is seldom seen above an inch and a half long, but it is much shorter when it is contracted and at rest; it is furnished neither with muscles nor rings, and its manner of lengthening or contracting itself more resembles that of the snail, than worms, or any other insect. The polypus contracts itself more or less, in proportion as it is touched, or as the water is agitated in which they are seen. Warmth animates them, and cold benumbs them; but it requires a degree of cold approaching congelation before they are reduced to perfect inactivity; those of an inch have generally

their arms double, often thrice as long as their bodies. The arms, where the animal is not disturbed, and the season not unfavourable, are thrown about in various directions, in order to seize and entangle its little prey; sometimes three or four of the arms are thus employed, while the rest are contracted like the horns of a snail, within the animal's body. It seems capable of giving what length it pleases to these arms; it contracts and extends them at pleasure, and stretches them only in proportion to the remoteness of the object it would seize.

These animals have a progressive motion, which is performed by that power they have of lengthening and contracting themselves at pleasure; they go from one part of the bottom to another; they mount along the margin of the water, and climb up the side of aquatic plants. They often are seen to come to the surface of the water, where they suspend themselves by their lower end. As they advance but very slowly, they employ a great deal of time in every action, and bind themselves very strongly to whatever body they chance to move upon as they proceed; their adhesion is voluntary, and is probably performed in the manner of a cupping-glass applied to the body.

All animals of this kind have a remarkable attachment to turn towards the light; and this naturally might induce an inquirer to look for their eyes; but however carefully this search has been pursued, and however excellent the microscope with which every part was examined, yet nothing of the appearance of this organ was found over the whole body; and it is most probable that, like several other insects which hunt their prey by their feeling, these creatures are unfurnished with advantages which would be totally useless for their support.

In the centre of the arms, as was said before, the mouth is placed, which the animal can open and shut at pleasure, and this serves at once as a passage for food, and an opening for it after digestion. The inward part of the animal's body seems to be one great stomach, which is open at both ends; but the purposes which the opening at the bottom serves are hitherto unknown, but certainly not for excluding their excrements, for those are ejected at the aperture by which they are taken in. If the surface of the body of this little creature be examined with a microscope, it will be found

studded with a number of warts, as also the arms, especially when they are contracted; and these tubercles, as we shall presently see, answer a very important purpose.

If we examine their way of living, we shall find these insects chiefly subsisting upon others, much less than themselves, particularly a kind of millepedes that live in the water, and a very small red worm, which they seize with great avidity. In short, no insect whatsoever, less than themselves, seems to come amiss to them; their arms, as was said before, serve them as a net would a fisherman, or perhaps, more exactly speaking, as a lime-twigg does a fowler.

Wherever their prey is perceived, which the animal effects by its feeling, it is sufficient to touch the object it would seize upon, and it is fastened without a power of escaping. The instant one of this insect's long arms is laid upon a millepede, the little insect sticks without a possibility of retreating. The greater the distance at which it is touched, the greater is the ease with which the polypus brings the prey to its mouth. If the little object be near, though irretrievably caught, it is not without great difficulty that it can be brought to the mouth to be swallowed. When the polypus is unsupplied with prey, it testifies its hunger by opening its mouth; the aperture, however, is so small that it cannot be easily perceived; but when, with any of its long arms, it has seized upon its prey, it then opens the mouth distinctly enough, and this opening is always in proportion to the size of the animal which it would swallow; the lips dilate insensibly by small degrees, and adjust themselves precisely to the figure of their prey. Mr. Trembley, who took a pleasure in feeding this useless brood, found that they could devour aliments of every kind, fish and flesh, as well as insects; but he owns they did not thrive so well upon beef and veal, as upon the little worms of their own providing. When he gave one of these famished reptiles any substance which was improper to serve for aliment, at first it seized the prey with avidity, but after keeping it some time entangled near the mouth, it dropt it again with distinguishing nicety.

When several polypi happen to fall upon the same worm, they dispute their common prey with each other. Two of them are often seen seizing the same worm at different ends, and dragging it at opposite directions with great force. It often happens, that while one is swallowing its respective

end, the other is also employed in the same manner, and thus they continue swallowing each his part, until their mouths meet together; they then rest, each for some time in this situation, till the worm breaks between them, and each goes off with his share; but it often happens that a seemingly more dangerous combat ensues, when the mouths of both are thus joined upon one common prey together: the largest polypus then gapes and swallows his antagonist; but what is very wonderful, the animal thus swallowed seems to be rather a gainer by the misfortune. After it has lain in the conqueror's body for about an hour, it issues unhurt, and often in possession of the prey which had been the original cause of contention. How happy would it be for men if they had as little to fear from each other!

These reptiles continue eating the whole year, except when the cold approaches to congelation; and then, like most others of the insect tribe, they feel the general torpor of nature, and all their faculties are for two or three months suspended: but if they abstain at one time, they are equally voracious at another, and, like snakes, ants, and other animals, that are torpid in winter, the meal of one day suffices them for several months together. In general, however, they devour more largely in proportion to their size, and their growth is quick exactly as they are fed; such as are best supplied, soonest acquire their largest size, but they diminish also in their growth with the same facility if their food be taken away.

Such are the more obvious properties of these little animals, but the most wonderful still remain behind: their manner of propagation, or rather multiplication, has for some years been the astonishment of all the learned of Europe. They are produced in as great a variety of manner as every species of vegetable. Some polypi are propagated from eggs, as plants are from their seed: some are produced by buds issuing from their bodies, as plants are produced by inoculation; while all may be multiplied by cuttings, and this to a degree of minuteness that exceeds even philosophical perseverance.

With respect to such of this kind as are hatched from the egg, little curious can be added, as it is a method of propagation so common to all the tribes of insect nature; but with regard to such as are produced like buds from their

parent stem, or like cuttings from an original root, their history requires a more detailed explanation. If a polypus be carefully observed in summer, when these animals are chiefly active, and more particularly prepared for propagation, it will be found to bourgeon forth from different parts of its body several tubercles or little knobs, which grow larger and larger every day; after two or three days' inspection, what at first appeared but a small excrescence takes the figure of a small animal, entirely resembling its parent, furnished with feelers, a mouth, and all the apparatus for seizing and digesting its prey. This little creature every day becomes larger, like the parent to which it continues attached; it spreads its arms to seize upon whatever insect is proper for aliment, and devours it for its own particular benefit: thus it is possessed of two sources of nourishment, that which it receives from the parent by the tail, and that which it receives from its own industry by the mouth. The food which these animals receive often tinctures the whole body, and upon this occasion the parent is often seen communicating a part of its own fluids to that of its progeny that grows upon it; while, on the contrary, it never receives any tincture from any substance that is caught and swallowed by its young. If the parent swallows a red worm, which gives a tincture to all its fluids, the young one partakes of the parental colour; but if the latter should seize upon the same prey, the parent polypus is no way benefited by the capture, but all the advantage remains with the young one.

But we are not to suppose that the parent is capable of producing only one at a time; several young ones are thus seen at once, of different sizes, growing from its body, some just budding forth, others acquiring their perfect form, and others come to sufficient maturity, and just ready to drop from the original stem to which they had been attached for several days. But what is more extraordinary still, those young ones themselves that continue attached to their parent, are seen to bourgeon, and propagate their own young ones also, each holding the same dependence upon its respective parent, and possessed of the same advantages that have been already described in the first connection. Thus we see a surprising chain of existence continued, and numbers of animals naturally produced without any union of the sexes, or other previous disposition of nature.

This seems to be the most natural way by which these insects are multiplied; their production from the egg being not so common; and though some of this kind are found with a little bladder attached to their bodies, which is supposed to be filled with eggs, which afterwards come to maturity, yet the artificial method of propagating these animals is much more expeditious, and equally certain. It is indifferent whether one of them be cut into ten, or ten hundred parts, each becomes as perfect an animal as that which was originally divided; but it must be observed, that the smaller the part which is thus separated from the rest, the longer it will be in coming to maturity, or in assuming its perfect form. It would be endless to recount the many experiments that have been tried upon this philosophical prodigy: the animal has been twisted and turned into all manner of shapes; it has been turned inside out, it has been cut in every division, yet still it continued to move; its parts adapted themselves again to each other, and in a short time it became as voracious and industrious as before.

Besides these kinds mentioned by Mr. Trembley, there are various others which have been lately discovered by the vigilance of succeeding observers, and some of these so strongly resemble a flowering vegetable in their forms, that they have been mistaken by many naturalists for such. Mr. Hughes, the author of the natural history of Barbadoes, has described a species of this animal, but has mistaken its nature, and called it a sensitive flowering plant; he observed it to take refuge in the holes of rocks, and, when undisturbed, to spread forth a number of ramifications, each terminated by a flowery petal, which shrunk at the approach of the hand, and withdrew into the hole from whence before it had been seen to issue. This plant, however, was no other than an animal of the polypus kind, which is not only to be found in Barbadoes, but also on many parts of the coast of Cornwall, and along the shores of the continent.

CHAP. V.

OF THE LITHOPHYTES AND SPONGES.

It is very probable that the animals we see and are acquainted with, bear no manner of proportion to those that are concealed from us. Although every leaf and vegetable swarms with animals upon land, yet at sea they are still more abundant; for the greatest part of what would seem vegetables growing there, are in fact nothing but the artificial formation of insects, palaces which they have built for their own habitation.

If we examine the bottom of the sea along some shores, and particularly at the mouths of several rivers, we shall find it has the appearance of a forest of trees under water, millions of plants growing in various directions, with their branches entangled in each other, and sometimes standing so thick as to obstruct navigation. The shores of the Persian Gulf, the whole extent of the Red-sea, and the western coasts of America, are so choaked up in many places with these coralline substances, that though ships force a passage through them, boats and swimmers find it impossible to make their way. These aquatic groves are formed of different substances, and assume various appearances. The coral plants, as they are called, sometimes shoot out like trees without leaves in winter; they often spread out a broad surface like a fan, and not uncommonly a large bundling head like a faggot; sometimes they are found to resemble a plant with leaves and flowers; and often the antlers of a stag, with great exactness and regularity. In other parts of the sea are seen sponges of various magnitude, and extraordinary appearances, assuming a variety of phantastic forms, like large mushrooms, mitres, fonts, and flower-pots. To an attentive spectator, these various productions seem entirely of the vegetable kind; they seem to have their leaves and their flowers, and have been experimentally known to shoot out branches in the compass of a year. Philosophers, therefore, till of late, thought themselves pretty secure in ascribing these productions to the vegetable kingdom; and Count Marsigli, who has written very laboriously and learnedly upon the subject

of corals and sponges, has not hesitated to declare his opinion, that they were plants of the aquatic kind, furnished with flowers and seeds, and endued with a vegetation entirely resembling that which is found upon land. This opinion, however, some time after, began to be shaken by Rumphius and Jussieu, and at last by the ingenious Mr. Ellis, who, by a more sagacious and diligent inquiry into nature, put it past doubt, that corals and sponges were entirely the works of animals, and that, like the honey-comb which was formed by the bee, the coral was the work of an infinite number of reptiles of the polypus kind, whose united labours were thus capable of filling whole tracts of the ocean with those embarrassing tokens of their industry.

If, in our researches after the nature of these plants, we should be induced to break off a branch of the coralline substance, and observe it carefully, we shall perceive its whole surface, which is very rugged and irregular, covered with a mucous fluid, and almost in every part studded with little jelly-like drops, which, when closely examined, will be found, to be no other than reptiles of the polypus kind. These have their motions, their arms, their appetites, exactly resembling those described in the last chapter; but they soon expire when taken out of the sea, and our curiosity is at once stopped in its career, by the animals ceasing to give any mark of their industry: recourse, therefore, has been had to other expedients, in order to determine the nature of the inhabitant, as well as the habitation.

If a coralline plant be strictly observed, while still growing in the sea, and the animals upon its surface be not disturbed, either by the agitation of the waters, or the touch of the observer, the little polypi will then be seen in infinite numbers, each issuing from its cell, and in some kinds the head covered with a little shell, resembling an umbrella, the arms spread abroad, in order to seize its prey, while the hinder part still remains attached to its habitation, from whence it never wholly removes. By this time it is perceived, that the number of inhabitants is infinitely greater than was at first suspected; and that they are all assiduously employed in the same pursuits, and that they issue from their respective cells, and retire into them at pleasure. Still, however, there are no proofs that those large branches which they inhabit, are entirely the construction of such feeble and minute animals.

But chymistry will be found to lend a clue to extricate us from our doubts in this particular. Like the shells which are formed by snails, mussels, and oysters, these coralline substances effervesce with acids; and may therefore well be supposed to partake of the same animal nature. But Mr. Ellis went still farther, and examined their operations, just as they were beginning. Observing an oyster-bed which had been for some time neglected, he there perceived the first rudiments of a coralline plantation, and tufts of various kinds shooting from different parts of this favourable soil. It was upon these he tried his principal experiment. He took out the oysters which were thus furnished with corallines, and placed them in a large wooden vessel, covering them with sea-water. In about an hour, he perceived the animals, which before had been contracted by handling, and had shewn no signs of life, expanding themselves in every direction, and appearing employed in their own natural manner. Perceiving them, therefore, in this state, his next aim was to preserve them thus expanded, so as to be permanent objects of curiosity. For this purpose, he poured, by slow degrees, an equal quantity of boiling water into the vessel of sea-water in which they were immersed. He then separated each polypus with pincers from its shell, and plunged each separately into small crystal vases, filled with spirit of wine mixed with water. By this means the animal was preserved entire, without having time to contract itself, and he thus perceived a variety of kinds, almost equal to that variety of productions which these little animals are seen to form. He has been thus able to perceive and describe fifty different kinds, each of which is seen to possess its own peculiar mode of construction, and to form a coralline that none of the rest can imitate. It is true, indeed, that on every coralline substance there are a number of polypi found, no way resembling those which are the erectors of the building: these may be called a vagabond race of reptiles, that are only intruders upon the labours of others, and that take possession of habitations, which they have neither art nor power to build for themselves. But, in general, the same difference that subsists between the honeycomb of the bee, and the paper-like cells of the wasp, subsists between the different habitations of the coral-making polypi.

With regard to the various forms of these substances

they have obtained different names from the nature of the animal that produced them, or the likeness they bear to some well-known object, such as coralines, fungi-madrepores, sponges, astroites, and keratophytes. Though these differ extremely in their outward appearances, yet they are all formed in the same manner by reptiles of various kinds and nature. When examined chymically, they all discover the marks of animal formation; the corals, as was said, dissolve in acids, the sponges burn with an odour strongly resembling that of burnt horn. We are left somewhat at a loss with regard to the precise manner in which this multitude of cells, which at last assume the appearance of a plant or flower, are formed.

If we may be led in this subject by analogy, it is most probable, that the substance of coral is produced in the same manner that the shell of the snail grows round it; these little reptiles are each possessed of a slimy matter, which covers its body, and this hardening, as in the snail, becomes a habitation exactly fitted to the body of the animal that is to reside in it; several of these habitations being joined together, form at length a considerable mass; and as most animals are productive in proportion to their minuteness, so these multiplying in a surprising degree, at length form those extensive forests that cover the bottom of the deep.

Thus all nature seems replete with life; almost every plant on land has its surface covered with millions of these minute creatures, of whose existence we are certain, but of whose uses we are entirely ignorant; while numbers of what seem plants at sea, are not only the receptacles of insects, but also entirely of insect formation. This might have led some late philosophers into an opinion, that all nature was animated; that every, even the most inert, mass of matter was endued with life and sensation, but wanted organs to make those sensations perceptible to the observer: those opinions, taken up at random, are difficultly maintained, and as difficultly refuted; like combatants that meet in the dark, each party may deal a thousand blows without ever reaching the adversary. Those, perhaps, are wiser who view nature as she offers; who, without searching too deeply into the recesses into which

she ultimately hides, are contented to take her as she presents herself; and storing their minds with effects rather than with causes, instead of the embarrassments of systems, about which few agree, are contented with the history of appearances, concerning which all mankind have but one opinion.



THE END.

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Aristotle's opinion about the formation of the incipient animal, i. 230 ; and mules being sometimes prolific, ii. 24.

Arlotto, an Italian Franciscan friar ; for his sleeping transgressions taken before the Inquisition, and like to be condemned for them, i. 307, 308.

Armadillo, or *Tatou*, generally referred to the tribe of insects or snails, i. 400 ; an inhabitant of South America ; a harmless creature, furnished with a peculiar covering for its defence ; attacked without danger, and liable to persecutions ; is of different sizes ; in all, however, the animal is partially covered with a coat of mail ; a striking curiosity in natural history ; has the same method of protecting itself as the hedgehog or pangolin ; when attacked, rolls itself up in its shell like a ball, and continues so till the danger is over ; the Indians take it in this form, lay it close to the fire, and oblige it to unfold ; this animal utterly unknown before the discovery of America ; does mischief in gardens ; hears the cold of our climate without inconvenience ; the mole does not burrow swifter than the armadillo ; burrows deep in the earth ; expedients used to force them out ; manner of taking them alive ; sometimes in snares by the sides of rivers, and low moist places which they frequent ; never found at a distance from their retreats ; escapes by rolling itself up, and tumbling down from rock to rock, without danger or inconvenience ; its food ; scarcely any that do not root the ground like a hog ; a kind friendship between them and the rattlesnake ; they are frequently found in the same hole ; they all resemble each other, as clothed with a shell, yet differ in size, and in the division of their shell ; the various kinds ; the pig-headed sort, the weasel-headed, the kabasson, and the encoubert, are the largest, ii. 323 to 327.

Arno, the river, a considerable piece of ground gained at the mouth of it, i. 160.

Aro, numbers of birds of paradise seen there, iii. 169.

Arsenius, tutor to the emperor Arcadius, lived an hundred and twenty years, i. 302.

Arts, faults that have infected most of our dictionaries and compilations of natural history, i. 397 ; teaching the arts of cruelty equivalent to committing them, iii. 121.

Asia, aim of the Asiatics to possess many women, and to furnish a seraglio their only ambition, i. 269 ; lustre of jewels and splendour of brilliant colours eagerly sought after by all conditions of men, 283.

Asia Minor, description of its inhabitants; i. 355, 356.

Asiatic, the olive-coloured, claims the hereditary resemblance to our common parent; an argument to prove the contrary, i. 360, 361.

Asp, a kind of serpent, iv. 147.

Asphaltum, an injection of petroleum and an application of asphaltum suffice to make a mummy, i. 386.

Ass and horse, though nearly alike in form, are distinct kinds, different in natures; with only one of each kind, both races would be extinguished; in the state of nature entirely different; wild ass in greater abundance than the wild horse; wild ass and the zebra a different species; countries where the wild ass is found; some run so swift, few coursers can overtake them; caught with traps; taken chiefly for the flesh and skins, which make that leather called shagreen; entertainment of wild asses in Persia seen by Olearius; the delicacy of its flesh a proverb there; Galen deems it unwholesome; asses originally imported into America by the Spaniards, have run wild, and multiplied in such numbers as to be a nuisance; chase of them in the kingdom of Quito; have all the swiftness of horses; declivities and precipices do not retard their career; after the first load their celerity leaves them, their dangerous ferocity lost, and they contract the stupid look and dulness peculiar to the assinine species; will not permit a horse to live among them; always feed together; and a horse straying where they graze, they fall upon, bite, and kick him, till he be dead; their preference to any vegetable is to the plantain; they drink as soberly as they eat, and never dip the nose into the stream; fear to wet their feet, and turn out to avoid the dirty parts of a road; shew no ardour but for the female, and often die after covering; scent an owner at a distance, and distinguish him in a crowd; with eyes covered, they will not stir a step; when laid down, one eye covered with the grass, and the other hidden with a stone, or other contiguous body, they will not stir or attempt to rise, to get free from impediments; several brought up to perform, and exhibited at a show; suffered to dwindle every generation, and particularly in England; bulk for bulk, an ass stronger than a horse, and surer-footed; also less apt to start than the horse; more healthy than the horse; Persians cleave their nostrils to give them more room for breathing; Spaniards alone know the value of the ass; the Spanish jack-ass above fifteen hands high; the ass originally a native of Arabia; warm climates produce the largest and best; entirely lost among us during the reign of queen Elizabeth; Hollingshead pretends our land yields no asses, yet they were common in England before that time; in Sweden they are a sort of rarity; by the last history of Norway, they had not reached that country; in Guinea, they are larger and more beautiful than the horses of that country; in Persia, are two kinds, some sold for forty or fifty pounds; no animal covered with air less subject to vermin; lives till twenty or twenty-five; sleeps less than the horse, and never lies down for it, unless much tired; she-ass crosses fire and water to protect her young; the gimmerro bred between the ass and the bull; the size and strength of our asses improved by importation of Spanish jack-asses, ii. 23 to 31; destroyed by the South American bat, called vampyre, ii. 333.

Assafœtida, savage nations delighted with the smell, i. 329.

Assinibolis lake, where the river St. Lawrence takes its rise, i. 127.

Astroites, among coral substances, iv. 326.

Atantis, an island submersed, was as large as Asia Minor and Syria; the fruits of the earth offered without cultivation, i. 81, 82.

Athauatus, instance of his strength, i. 294.

Athelstau, prohibited the exportation of mares and stallions, except as presents, ii. 20.

Athenians had their cock-matches, iii. 120. See *Quail-fighting*, iii. 146.

Atherine, description of this fish, iii. 403.

Atmosphere, most disorders incident to mankind, says Bacon, arise from changes in the atmosphere, iii. 331.

Attraction, defined; the sun possessed of the greatest share, i. 10.

Avosetta, or scoper, a bird found in Italy; now and then comes over into England; its description, and extraordinary shape of its bill, iii. 252.

Aurelia, one of the appearances of the caterpillar, iv. 228, 234; laying it in a warm room, Mr. Reaumur hastened the disclosure of the butterfly, and by keeping it in an ice-house, retarded it; though it bears a different appearance, it contains all the parts of the butterfly in perfect formation; some insects continue under that form not above ten days, some twenty, some several months, others for a year together, 239; how the butterfly gets rid of that covering, 239; aurelia of the bee different from that of the common caterpillar, 266.

Aurora Borealis, or northern light, streams with peculiar lustre, and a variety of colours, round the pole; its appearance almost constant in winter; and when the sun departs for half a year, this meteor supplies its beams, affording light for all the purposes of existence, i. 222.

Aurora, or the samiri, the smallest and most beautiful of the sapajou monkeys; its description; is very tender, delicate, and held in high price, ii. 383.

Auvergne, in France, an amazing mummy dug up at that place, i. 384.

Auk, a bird bred in the island of St. Kilda, iii. 292.

Axis, a kind of beautiful stag; its description, ii. 103.

Azores, serpents, adders, and snakes, seen about these islands by Sir Robert Hawkins in 1590, i. 140.

B

Baboon, survey of the baboon kind, ii. 367; fierce, malicious, ignorant, and untractable; its description; impelled by a hatred for the males of the human species, and a desire for women; the Chevalier Forbin relates, that in Siam, whole troops will sally forth, plunder the houses of provisions, and endeavour to force the women; manner of robbing an orchard or vineyard at the Cape of Good Hope; the female brings forth one at a time, carries it in her arms, clinging to her breast; at the Cape of Good Hope, the young of these animals are taught to guard houses, and perform the duty with punctuality; they seem insensible of the mischief they do; a baboon described by Mr. Buffon; lasciviousness predominant; their food; are not found to breed in our climate; are not carnivorous; their liver, like that of a dog, divided into six lobes; the largest of the kind is the mandril; its description; displeased, it weeps like a child; is a native of the Gold Coast; that called Wanderow chiefly seen in the woods of Ceylon and Malabar; its description; the Maimon of Buffon, by Edwards called the pig-tail, the last of the sort; its description; a native of Sumatra, ii. 371.

Baby, the name of a dwarf, whose complete history is very accurately related by Mr. Daubenton, i. 368.

Babyrroussa, the Indian hog; its description; travellers call it the hog of Borneo; in what manner it escapes the pursuers; has enormous tusks of fine ivory; less dangerous than the wild boar; the tusks have points directed to the eyes, and sometimes grow into them; these animals, in a body, are seen with the wild boars, with which they are not known to engender; are easily tamed; have a way of reposing different from other animals of the larger kind, by hitching one of their upper tusks on the branch of a tree, and suffering their whole body to swing down at ease; they are fierce and terrible when offended, and peaceable and harmless when unmolested; their flesh good to be eaten, but said to putrefy in a short time; they chiefly live upon vegetables and the leaves of trees; are found in the island of Borneo, and in other parts of Asia and Africa, ii. 142 to 144.

Bacon's observations upon fishes, iii. 331.

Badger, a solitary, stupid animal; forms a winding hole, and remains in safety at the bottom; the fox takes possession of the hole quitted by the badger, or forces it from the retreat by wiles; surprised by the dogs at a distance from its hole, it fights with desperate resolution; all that has life is its food; it sleeps the greatest part of its time, and though not voracious, keeps fat, particularly in winter; it keeps the hole very clean; the female makes a bed of hay for her young; brings forth in summer, three or four young; how she feeds them:

the young are easily tamed; the old are savage and incorrigible; are fond of fire, and often burn themselves dangerously; are subject to the mange, and have a gland under the tail, which scents strongly; its flesh rank and ill-tasted, iii. 18, 19.

Bag, name of the false belly of the opossum; its description, ii. 386, 387.

Bag, or pouch, of the civet. See *Civet*, ii. 249.

Bait, the best of all kinds of fish is fresh herring; the larger sort will take a living small fish upon the hook sooner than any other bait, iii. 374.

Balance, to determine the specific gravity of metals, i. 112.

Balearic crane, its description; the real crane of Pliny; comes from the coast of Africa and Cape de Verd Islands; has been described by the name of sea-peacock; foreign birds of the crane kind described, the jabiru, the jabirugazeu, the anhimia, and the buffoon-bird, iii. 233 to 236.

Ball of fire of the bigness of a bomb; its effects, i. 218.

Banks of a river, after inundations, appear above water, when all the adjacent valleys are overflowed, and why, i. 119.

Banana, the elephant eats the plant to the roots, ii. 395.

Barb, an Arabian horse bred in Barbary, ii. 13.

Barbs of the whale, or whale-bone, iii. 312.

Barbary hen, its description, iii. 135.

Barble, a flat fish, its growth, iii. 417.

Barja, in South America, cattle destroyed at that place by the American bats, called vampires, ii. 331.

Baris. See *Apes*, ii. 362.

Barnacle, imaginary, a shell-fish, iv. 67.

Barometer, serviceable in measuring the height of mountains, i. 92; measures the weight of the air; in what manner, 176; frequent changes in the air without any sensible alteration in the barometer, 177; when it marks a peculiar lightness in the air, no wonder that it foretells a storm; and why, 203.

Barreliere, a famous youth, considered as a prodigy of learning at the age of fourteen; slept regularly twelve hours in the twenty-four, i. 305.

Bass, a rocky island in the Frith of Forth. See *Birds*, iii. 278.

Bath, persons coming out of a warm bath several ounces heavier than when they went in; warm bath of sea water, a kind of relief to mariners, upon a failure of fresh water at sea, i. 139.

Bat,—bats as big as rabbits, i. 233; by some reckoned among birds, 400; doubtful among naturalists whether beast or bird, now universally take place among quadrupeds, ii. 328; Pliny, Gesner, and Aldrovandus, placed it among birds; scarcely in any particular resembles the bird, except in the power of sustaining itself in the air; description of the common sort in England; its intestines and skeleton, in some measure, resemble those of mankind; makes its first appearance early in summer, and begins its flight in the evening; is seen to skim along the surface of waters; feeds upon gnats, moths, and nocturnal insects of every kind, which it pursues open-mouthed; its flight laborious, irregular, and, if interrupted, not readily followed by a second elevation; usually taken when striking against an object it falls to the ground; even in the summer, it sleeps the greatest part of the time; its retreat; continues in a torpid state during winter; is usually hanging by its hooked claws to the roofs of caves; unaffected by all change of weather; is destroyed particularly by the owl; the bat couples and brings forth in summer from two to five young at a time; the female has two nipples forward on the breast, as in the human kind; and this is a motive for Linnæus to give it the title of a primas, to rank it in the same order with mankind; the female makes no nest for her young; when she begins to grow hungry, and finds a necessity of stirring abroad, she takes her little ones and sticks them by their hooks against the sides of her apartment, and there they immoveably cling, and patiently wait her return; less similitude to the race of birds than of quadrupeds; great labour in flying, soon fatigues, and tires it in less than an hour; its petty thefts upon the fat of bacon; long-eared bat; horse-shoe bat; rhinoceros bat; a large race of bats in the East and West Indies truly formidable; a dangerous enemy; when united in flocks

they become dreadful; are eaten; the Negroes of the African coast will not eat them though starving; on the African coast they fly in such numbers, as to obscure the setting sun; the rousette, or great bat of Madagascar, is found along the coasts of Africa and Malabar; where it is often seen about the size of a large hen; destroys the ripe fruits, and sometimes settles upon animals, and man himself; destroys fowls and domestic animals, unless preserved with the utmost care, and often fasten upon the inhabitants, attack them in the face, and make terrible wounds; the ancients have taken their idea of harpies from these fierce and voracious creatures, equally deformed, greedy, uncleanly, and cruel; the bat called the American vampyre; its description by Ulloa; purport of his account confirmed by various travellers, who all agree that it has a faculty of drawing blood from persons sleeping, and destroying them before they awake; a strong difficulty remains how they make the wound; Ulloa and Buffon's opinions; suppose the animal endowed with a strong power of suction; and that, without inflicting any wound, by continuing to draw, it enlarges the pores of the skin, so that the blood at length passes; they are one of the great pests of South America, ii. 324 to 338; found in the holes deserted by the woodpecker, iii. 165.

To bay, said of a stag when he turns his head against the hounds, ii. 98.

Beagle. See *Hound*, ii. 191.

Beak, how that of animals is produced, i. 285.

Beam, by hunters meant that part which bears the antlers, ii. 98.

Beams, those of the sun shining upon the fire put it out, and why; darting directly upon us, without the medium of the air, would burn us up at once, or blind us with effulgence, i. 193.

Bears, in cold frozen regions of the North, not smaller than in milder countries, i. 234; the North American Indians anoint their skins with fat of bears, 359; the bears now and then make depredations upon the rein-deer, ii. 128; in Greenland do not change colour, 230; three different kinds; the black of America does not reject animal food, as believed; places where they are found; retreat of the brown bear; a vulgar error, that during winter the brown bear lives by sucking its paws; it seems rather to exist upon the exuberance of its former flesh, iii. 15, 16; the male and female do not inhabit the same den, and seldom are seen together, but on the accesses of genial desire; care of the female for her young; the bear, when tamed, seems gentle and placid, yet still to be distrusted and managed with caution, being often treacherous and resentful without a cause; is capable of a degree of instruction; when come to maturity, can never be tamed; methods of taking them; their paws and hams a great delicacy; the white placed in the coldest climates, grows larger than in the temperate zones, and remains master of the icy mountains in Spitzbergen and Greenland; unable to retreat, when attacked with fire-arms they make a fierce and long resistance; they live upon fish and seals; their flesh is too strong for food; are often seen on ice-floats several leagues at sea, though bad swimmers; the white sometimes jumps into a Greenlander's boat, and if he does not overset it, sits down calmly, and like a passenger suffers itself to be rowed along; hunger makes it swim after fish; often a battle ensues between a bear and a morse, or a whale, and the latter generally proves victorious, 15 to 18.

Beards, Americans taking great pains to pluck theirs up by the roots, the under-part, and all but the whiskers, therefore supposed to have no hair growing on that part; Linneus himself has fallen into this mistake; different customs of men, in the manner of wearing their beards, i. 283, 284.

Beasts are more fierce and cruel in all countries where men are most barbarous, i. 49.

Beasts of chase, in the reign of William Rufus, and Henry the First, it was less criminal to destroy one of the human species than a beast of chase; sacred edifices thrown down, and turned to waste, to make room for beasts of chase; ii. 96.

Beasts of prey seldom devour each other; they chiefly seek after the deer or the goat; their usual method of hunting, i. 404.

Beaver, known to build like an architect, and rule like a citizen, i. 408; its sure parts taste like flesh, and the hinder like the fish it feeds on, ii. 142; a remaining monument of brutal society; its qualities, taken from its fellows, and kept in solitude or domestic tameness; resists only when driven to extremity, and fights when its speed cannot avail; the only quadruped that has a flat broad tail, covered with scales, serving as a rudder to direct its motions in the water; the sole quadruped with membranes between the toes on the hind feet, and none on the fore feet; the only animal in its fore parts entirely resembles a quadruped, and in its hinder parts approaches the nature of fishes, having a scaly tail; its description; but has no vent for the emission of excrements and urine; they assemble about the months of June and July; make a society to continue the greatest part of the year; form a company of above two hundred; fix their abode by the side of a lake or river; cut with their teeth a tree thicker than a man's body; amazing works and mansion-houses; convey their materials by water; mix clay and dry grass together, work it into a mortar, and with their tails plaster their work within and without; their walls perpendicular, and two feet thick; their piers fourscore or a hundred feet long, and ten or twelve feet thick at the base; their dykes ten and twelve feet thick at the foundation; their apartments round or oval, and divided into three stories, one above the other; visited too often by men, they work only in the night time, or abandon the place, and seek a safer situation; four hundred reside in one mansion-house, divided into a number of apartments, having communication with each other; their works in the northern parts finished in August or September; in summer they are epicures; their provisions for the winter season; they drive piles into the earth, to fence and fortify their habitation against the wind and water; cut down branches three to ten feet in length; the largest are conveyed to their magazines by a whole body; the smallest by one only; each taking a different way, and having a walk assigned him, that no one should interrupt another in his work; wood-yards larger or smaller, in proportion to the number in the family; manner of catching them in snares or by surprise; they swim with their mortar on their tails, and their stakes between their teeth; their works damaged by force of water, or feet of huntsmen, instantly repaired, ii. 340 to 345.

Beauty, every country has peculiar ideas of beauty; extraordinary tastes for beauty, i. 271; every nation, how barbarous soever, has peculiar arts of heightening beauty; several of these arts, 272; a modern lady's face formed exactly like the Venus of Medici's, or the sleeping Vestal, would scarcely be considered as a beauty, except by the lovers of antiquity; less in the object than in the eye of the beholder; superior beauty of our ancestors not easily comparable, i. 374.

Beccafico, a bird of the sparrow kind, iii. 196.

Bed, of a river, an increase of water there increases its rapidity, except in cases of inundation, and why; such bed left dry for some hours by a violent storm blowing directly against the stream, i. 121, 122.

Beds, the earth every where in beds over beds, and each of them maintaining exactly the same thickness, i. 40.

Bee, a ruminating insect, or seemingly so; its stomach is composed of muscular fibres, ii. 39; operations studied for two thousand years, are still incompletely known; Reaumur's account sufficiently wonderful; many of the facts held dubious by those conversant with the subject; some declared not to have existence in nature; three different kinds of bees; common working bees neither male or female; queen bees lay all the eggs that are hatched in a season; structure of the working bee, particularly of its trunk, which extracts the honey from flowers; manner of building their cells; in one day, they make cells upon each other enough to contain three thousand bees; description of those cells; the combs made by insensible degrees, not at once, as some imagine; the cells for the young and for the drones; that for the queen bee the largest of all; those for honey are deeper than the rest; that not the only food upon which they subsist; manner of anticipating the pro-

gress of vegetation; the bee has a stomach for wax as well as honey; bee bread; treacle for food of bees in winter; what part of the flower has the honey; sting of the bee; any wanting food, bends down its trunk to the bee from whom it is expected, which then opens its honey-bag, and lets some drops fall into the other's mouth; numerous as the multitude of bees appears in a swarm, they all owe their origin to one parent, called the queen-bee; opening the body of a queen, the eggs at one time found to amount to five thousand; the queen easily distinguished from the rest; great fertility of the queen, and the great attention paid to her, controverted by recent observers; they leave a cell to every egg, and destroy the rest; great care and affection for the young; in about twenty days after the egg was laid, the bee was completely formed, and fitted to undergo the fatigues of its state; the cell being prepared, the animal soon transformed into an aurelia different from that of the common caterpillar; when they begin to break their prisons, above a hundred are excluded in one day; dreadful battles often ensue between the young brood and the progenitors; signs previous to their migrations; after the migration, the queen being settled, the swarm follows, and in a quarter of an hour the whole body is at ease; sometimes sacrifice their queen, but never when the hive is full of wax and honey; the working sort kill the drones in the worm state, in the cell, and eject their bodies from the hive among the general carnage; upwards of forty thousand bees found in a single hive; instances of expedition in working; in the first fifteen days, they make more wax than during the rest of the year; a hive sending out several swarms in the year, the first always the best and most numerous; a kind of floating bee-house used in France, iv. 258 to 270.

Bees, in other countries; in Guadaloupe are less by half than in Europe, and have no sting; sometimes there are two or three queens to a swarm; then the weaker deserted for the more powerful protector; the deserted queen does not survive the defeat; is destroyed by the jealous rival; and till this be done, the bees never go out to work; at Guadaloupe their cells are in hollow trees, sometimes with a sort of waxen-house, shaped like a pear, in which they lodge their honey, and lay their eggs; their honey never congeals, is fluid as oil, and has the colour of amber; in the tropical climates are black bees without a sting; their wax is soft, and only used for medicinal purposes, not being hard enough for candles, as in Europe; whether the humble-bees have a queen or not, there is one much larger than the rest, without wings, without hair, all over black, like polished ebony; this views all the works from time to time; their habits; the honey gathered by the humble-bees neither so fine, so good, nor the wax so clear, or so capable of fusion, as those of the common bees, iv. 271, 272.

Bees, *Leaf-cutting*, make their nest, and lay their eggs, among bits of leaves, iv. 273.

Bees, *Wall*, so called, because they make their nests in walls; the male and females are of a size; the former without a sting, iv. 274.

Bee, *Wood*, iv. 272; *Bee*, *Mason*, *Bee*, *Ground*, builds its nest in the earth; the patience and assiduity of their labour, 273.

Beetles, a ruminating insect, or seems to ruminate, ii. 39; their general characteristics; their kinds distinguished from each other; description of the sexes; dor-beetle, or the May-bug; how the two in the May-bug are distinguished from each other; season of their coupling; the female bores a hole into the ground, where to deposit her burden; and when lightened of it, ascends from the hole to live as before; their eggs; description of the insect, and of its manner of life in the worm-state; continues in that state for more than three years, changing every year its skin; and living under the ground without eyes; in what manner it assumes the form of a chrysalis; time when it becomes winged, and completely formed; the old one never survives the season; and dies from the severity of cold in winter; its habits and food, when completely formed; number of their eggs; rooks and hogs particularly fond of them, and devour them in great numbers; instances of great devastations made by the May-bug; description and habits of that beetle which the Americans call

the tumble-dung; the insect called the king of the beetles; description of the elephant-beetle, the largest of this kind hitherto known, iv. 291 to 296.

Beggars, a question in the schools, which the most happy man, the beggar by night, and the king by day; or the beggar by day, and king by night, i. 306.

Belcher (Mr.) See *Blood*, i. 336.

Bell, the great diving-bell improved by Mr. Halley; he could write or read in it when the sea was clear, and especially when the sun shone, i. 169.

Bell, when the stag cries, he is said to *bell*, ii. 98.

Bells, their vibrations not heard under the receiver of an air-pump, i. 193.

Belly, a minute description of the false belly of the opossum, ii. 386.

Berries, the Laplanders drink water, in which juniper-berries have been infused, i. 348.

Bewailer, or the sai, a monkey of the new continent, ii. 383.

Bezoar, German bezoar, ii. 78.

Bezoar-goat, the oriental bezoar, ii. 77; cow-bezoar, monkey-bezoar, and hog-bezoar, 78.

Billiting, a name given by the huntsmen to the excrement of the fox, ii. 215.

Birch, hares are particularly fond of it, ii. 259.

Birds, all produced from the egg, i. 245; their lower eye-lid alone has motion, 276; have the neck longer than any other kind of animals; those which have short claws have also short necks, those that have long claws have the neck in proportion, 285; have a power of discharging food to feed their young; ruminating birds, ii. 39; many kinds which the dog will not touch, 201; hunters often informed by the birds of the place of retreat of the fox, 217; a flock of small birds often alarms every thicket, and directs the hunter to the martin, 233; formed for a life of escape; surpass fishes and insects in the structure of their bodies, and in sagacity; their anatomy and conformation; compared to a ship making way through water; are furnished with a gland behind containing a proper quantity of oil; to what purpose; description of their feathers; the pectoral muscles of quadrupeds trifling to those of birds; choose to rise against the wind, and why; all except the nocturnal have the heads smaller, and less in proportion to the body, than quadrupeds; their sight exceeds most other animals, and excels, in strength and precision; have no external ear standing out from the head; the feathers encompassing the ear-holes supply the defect of the exterior ear; the extreme delicacy of their sense of hearing is easily proved by their readiness in learning tunes, or repeating words, and the exactness of their pronunciation; their delicacy in the sense of smelling; instances of it in ducks; the tail guides their flight like a rudder, and assists them either in the ascent or descent; wonderful internal conformation; the wind-pipe often makes many convolutions within the body of the bird, and is then called the labyrinth; of what use these convolutions are, no naturalist has been able to account; this difference obtains in birds to all appearance of the same species; whence some derive that loud and various modulation in their warbling is not easily accounted for; birds have much louder voices in respect to their bulk than animals of other kinds; all have properly but one stomach, but different in different kinds; the organs of digestion in a manner reversed in birds; why they pick up sand, gravel, and other hard substances; most have two appendices or blind-guts; in quadrupeds always found single; all birds want a bladder for urine; their urine differs from that of other animals; effects of the annual moulting which birds suffer; their moulting-time artificially accelerated, and how; the manner in which nature performs the operation of moulting; their moulting-season; many live with fidelity together for a length of time; when one dies, the other shares the same fate soon after; the male of wild birds as happy in the young brood as the female; nothing exceeds their patience while hatching; Addison's observations to this purpose; great care and industry in providing subsistence for their young; they feed each of the young in turn, and why; perceiving their nests or young to have been handled, they abandon the place by night, and provide a more secure, though less commodious retreat;

the young taught the art to provide for their subsistence; those hatched and sent out earliest in the season the most strong and vigorous, iii. 35 to 50; they endeavour to produce early in the spring, and why; efforts for a progeny when their nests are robbed; such as would have laid but two or three eggs, if their eggs be stolen, will lay ten or twelve; the greatest number remain in the districts where they have been bred; and are excited to migration only by fear, climate, or hunger; cause of the annual emigrations of birds; times of migrations; in what order performed; follow the weather rather than the country, and go on as they perceive the atmosphere more suitable to their wants and dispositions; in all countries, longer-lived than quadrupeds or insects of the same climate; surprising age of swans and geese; plumage and voice of birds in different zones; all less than quadrupeds; the greatest of one class surpass the greatest of the other in magnitude; causes of the great variety in the middle order of birds; the ostrich is the greatest of birds; the humming-bird the smallest; wild birds generally of the same magnitude and shape; inferior to quadrupeds in docility; the number already known above eight hundred; difference between land-birds and water-fowls; description of birds of the rapacious kind; the pie kind; the poultry kind; the sparrow kind; the duck kind; the crane kind, 51 to 59; the cormorant the best fisher; the nauseous bird, or dodo; powers of land-birds of the rapacious kind to obtain their food; sight of such as prey by day surprisingly quick; such as ravage by night have their sight fitted to see in darkness with precision; inhabit the most lonely places and desert mountains; appearing in cultivated plains, or the warbling groves, is for depredation; every order of carnivorous birds seek for those of the size approaching their own; the carnivorous kinds only breed annually, and are less fruitful than others; breed but few at a time; where supplies of food are difficult, the old soon drive the brood from the nest to shift for themselves, and often destroy them in a fury caused by hunger; almost all birds of prey unsociable; the male and female, when necessary to each other, live together but they most usually prowl alone; birds with crooked beaks and talons are solitary; all males of prey are less and weaker than the females; the females are of a greater size, more beautiful and lovely for shape and colours, stronger; more fierce, and generous, than the males; it may be necessary to be thus superior, to provide for herself and her young; these birds are lean and meagre; their flesh is stringy and ill-tasted, soon corrupting, and flavoured of that animal upon which they subsist; Belonius asserts, many people like the flesh of the vulture and falcon, and dress them for eating; and that the osprey, when young, is excellent food; five kinds of land-birds of the rapacious nature; whence their distinctive mark; bird of heaven, name given by the ancients to the eagle; two children carried off by eagles, 76 to 83; the most formidable birds of prey respect the butcher-bird, 105; the digestion of such as live upon mice, lizards, or the like food, not very perfect, 110; Father Kircher set the voice of birds to music, 111; domestic birds of the poultry kind, maintained in our yards, are of foreign extraction, 115; the wilder species, cooped or caged, pine away, glow gloomy, and some refuse all sustenance; the poultry kind alone grow fat, 117; climate, food, and captivity, three very powerful agents in the alteration of the habits, and the very form of birds; of all birds the cock the oldest companion of mankind, and the first reclaimed from the forest, 118; also the Persian bird of Aristophanes, 119; description of the tamis, or the bird of Numidia, 135; the bustard the largest land-bird, native of Britain, 136; none secures its young better from external injury than the toucan, 162; God's bird, the bird of paradise, 169; parakeets the most beautiful in plumage, and the most talkative birds in nature, 180; the pigeon, for its size, has the largest crop, 183; small birds the greatest favourites of man; mark out a territory to themselves, which they permit none of their own species to remain in; at some seasons of the year, all small birds migrate from one country to another, or from more inland provinces towards the shore; months of their migrations; autumn the principal season for catching these wanderers; the nets, and the method of catching them; flur-birds; singing among birds

universally the prerogative of the male; small birds fight till one yields his life with the victory; two male birds strive in song, till the loudest silences the other; during the contention, the female sits an attentive silent auditor, and often rewards the loudest songster with her company during the season; the male, while his mate is hatching, sits upon some neighbouring tree, to watch and to sing; the nest of small birds warmer than of larger; small birds having finished their nests, nothing exceeds the cunning they employ to conceal it; worms and insects the first food of all birds of the sparrow kind; how birds of the sparrow kind bring forth and hatch their young; manner of life during the rigours of winter; the male of small birds not finding a mate of its own species, flies to one of another, like him, left out in pairing; a mixed species between a gold-finch and a canary-bird, between a linnæ and a lark; these breed frequently together, and produce not, like the mules among quadrupeds, a race incapable of breeding again, but one as fruitful as their parents; various birds of the sparrow kind; many plants propagated from the depositions of birds; many of those kinds, which are of passage in England, permanent in other countries; and some with us constant residents, in other kingdoms have the nature of birds of passage; instances of it, 188 to 199; the heron commits the greatest devastation in fresh waters, 238; the flamingo has the largest tongue, 249; birds of various sorts and sizes, more than the stars in a serene night, seen in the rock of the Bass and in the Frith of Forth, 278; none make a more indifferent figure upon land, or a more beautiful in the water, than the swan, 299; of all birds known it is the longest in the shell, 303; the duck, reared under a hen, despises the admonitions of its leader; an incontestible proof that birds have their manners rather from nature than education, 306.

Bird-catchers' sport by counterfeiting the cry of the owl, iii. 112; nets for, and method of taking small birds, 191.

Bison and *Urus*, names of descendants of one common stock; error of the naturalists upon this point; the cow and bison are animals of the same kind; description of the bison; it is supposed by Klein and Buffon no more than another name for the bonasus; the breed found in all the southern parts of the world; that breed more expert and docile than ours; many bend their knees to take burdens up, or set them down; the respect for them in India degenerated into adoration; it is nimble of foot; it is esteemed by the Hottentots; assists them in attending their flocks, and guarding them against invaders; is taught to combat the enemies of the nation, and every army of the Hottentots, is furnished with a herd of them; they procure the Hottentots an easy victory before they strike a blow; lives in the same cottage with its master, and when it dies, a new one is chosen to succeed it by a council of the old men of the village, and is then joined with a veteran of its own kind, from whom it learns, becomes social and diligent, and is taken for life into friendship and protection; the bison are found to differ from each other in several parts of the world; some have horns, and some are without; they are equally tractable and gentle when tamed, and are furnished with a fine, lustrous, soft air, more beautiful than that of our own breed; their hump of different sizes, weighing from forty to fifty pounds, more or less; cuts and tastes somewhat like a dressed udder; the bison of Malabar, Abyssinia, Madagascar, Arabia, Asia, Africa, and America; in the course of a few generations, the hump wears away; its description; the bison and the cow breed among each other; the grunting or Siberian cow, and the little African cow, or zebu, are different races of the bison, ii. 44 to 54.

Bitch, a pregnant bitch, so placed by Mr. Buffon that her puppies were brought forth in warm water, i. 259; one forgotten in a country-house lived forty days without any other nourishment than the wool of a quilt she had torn to pieces, ii. 202.

Bittern, or mire-drum, the solemnity of its evening-call cannot be described by words; they are calls to courtship or of connubial felicity; it differs from the heron chiefly in colour; its windpipe fitted for the sound; opinions concerning the cause of its boomings; never utters its call in domestic captivity; its

residence ; a retired timorous animal ; its food, nest, and eggs ; in three days, leads its little ones to their food ; differences between the bittern and the heron ; its hollow boom considered by the vulgar as the presage of some sad event ; instance of it ; its flesh greatly esteemed by the luxurious ; it seldom rises but when almost trode upon ; at the latter end of autumn, in the evening, its wonted indolence forsakes it ; is then seen rising in a spiral ascent, till quite lost from the view, making a singular noise different from its former boomings ; names given to this bird by the Greeks and Latins, iii. 242 to 244.

Bivalve shells, iv. 39 ; all the kinds hermaphrodite, yet require no assistance towards impregnation, 55 ; it is particularly in these shell-fish that pearls are found, 61.

Blackbird, of the sparrow kind, iii. 196 ; sometimes seen all over white ; its eggs and nest, 200.

Black-cap, bird of the sparrow kind, iii. 198 ; prized by some for its singing, and is also called the mock nightingale, 207.

Blacks, conjectural opinion that the blacks are a race of people bred from one man accidentally black, i. 357 ; the climate a cause obvious and sufficient to produce blackness ; nothing satisfactory discovered upon the cause of producing it in human complexions ; opinion of Sir Thomas Brown upon the subject, 358 ; whence originally their flat noses, 360 ; black parents have procreated two white negroes, 361.

Bladder, birds have no bladder for urine, iii. 44. See *Fishes*, iii. 331, 333.

Blennius, or Blenny, description of this fish, iii. 332.

Blind, such as live in countries generally covered with snow become blind, i. 317 ; the mole not blind, ii. 305.

Blindworm, its description, iv. 151.

Blood, arterial blood immediately mixed with air in the lungs, is of a fine florid scarlet colour ; that of the veins returning to the heart is of a blackish crimson hue ; whence this difference of colour proceeds not well understood, i. 192 ; the blood circulates through the bones, as through every other part of the body ; Mr. Belcher the first who discovered it ; his experiment to this purpose, 336 ; blood of the rein-deer preserved in small casks for sauce, with the marrow, in the spring, ii. 127 ; the heat of the blood in man and other animals above thirty degrees above congelation ; in the marmout, and other animals which sleep the winter, it is not above ten degrees, ii. 280.

Blue-bird, described ; its residence ; is rarely caught ; its docility ; speaks and whistles at the word of command ; manner of taking it, iii. 200.

Blue Cat described, ii. 152.

Blushing, whence it proceeds, i. 280.

Boar, wild, varies not his colour as dogs of the domestic kind ; description ; he ploughs the ground like a furrow ; his tusks seen almost a foot long ; they differ from those of the elephant in that they never fall ; when the boars come to a state of maturity, they dread no single creature ; their position when attacked, ii. 131 ; the manner of hunting them ; when killed, the testicles cut off to prevent their tainting the flesh, 132 ; was formerly a native of our country ; William the Conqueror punished with the loss of their eyes such as killed it in his forests ; at present the wild breed is extinct, 135 ; the Canary boar described ; the tusks being broken away, the animal abates its fierceness and venery, and nearly the same effect as castration is produced, 144 ; does not fly at the approach of the lion ; combat of a lion and a wild boar, in a meadow near Algiers, 160.

Boback, name of the marmout in Poland, ii. 281.

Bodies, why some light bodies swim, and ponderous bodies sink ; the deeper a body sinks, the greater the resistance of the depressed fluid beneath ; how then, after it has got a certain way, it does sink at all, i. 111 to 114 ; animal bodies left to putrefy, produce air copiously, 194 ; symmetry of the human body ; the body of a well-shaped man ought to be square, 273 ; human body often found to differ from itself in size ; instance of it ; the cause ; differs also from itself in weight, 289, 290 ; those parts furnished with the greatest quan-

tity of nerves, are first in formation, 309; the tone of a sonorous body made to depend upon the number of its vibrations, and not the force, is taking an effect for a cause, 320; suffering is but to a certain degree; torture becoming excessive, destroys itself; and the mind ceases to perceive, when the body can no longer endure, 343.

Boerhaave taxed with marking out to his pupils a little ridge of hills in Holland, as mountains of no small consideration, i. 83.

Boiguaca, the largest of the serpent kind in South America; sometimes forty feet in length, i. 233; description of this creature, iv. 153.

Bonassus supposed by Klein and Buffon another name for the bison, ii. 46.

Bones, in the embryo, almost as soft as the muscles and flesh, i. 336; hard as the bones seem, the blood holds its current through them, as through other parts of the body; in old age more solid, also more brittle, and why, 337; fossil bones found on the banks of the Ohio, in Peru and Brasil, ii. 407. See *Blood*, i. 336. See *Bread*, i. 347. See *Fish*, iii. 406.

Bonet-Chinois, Mr. Buffon's name of a monkey, supposed to be a variety of that called malbrouk, ii. 381.

Bonito, description of this fish, iii. 404.

Booby, name given by our seamen to birds of the penguin tribe, iii. 291.

Borandians, description of them, i. 346.

Boristhenes, or Nieper, a river, its course and source, i. 123.

Borneo, the natives hunt the ouran-outang in the same manner as the elephant or the lion, ii. 365.

Borocho, in the kingdom of Cambaya, flocks of peacocks seen in the fields near that city, iii. 127.

Bosphorus, (the Thracian) was the first appropriated, by granting to such as were in possession of its shore the right of fishing in it, i. 136.

Bottom of the Red Sea, a forest of submarine plants, i. 167; that of the sea in some parts not found, and why; that of the sea near America covered with vegetables; a map of the bottom of the sea between Africa and America, by M. Buache, 168.

Borneo, island in the East Indies, where the babyrouessa, or Indian hog, is principally found; hog of Borneo, the name given by travellers to the babyrouessa, ii. 142.

Bowels, of the ruminating animals considered as an elaboratory with vessels in it, ii. 36.

Boyuna, of Ceylon, a kind of serpent, a great favourite among the natives, iv. 152.

Brain and spinal marrow the first seen in the embryo, i. 310; earth-worm entirely without it, iv. 310; some animals live without their brains for many weeks together, 312.

Brambling, a bird of the sparrow kind, iii. 197, 198.

Bramins of India have a power of smelling equal to most creatures; they smell the water they drink, though to us quite inodorous, i. 328.

Brazil, black clothes worn there soon turn of an iron-colour; kept in the shops; preserve their proper hue, i. 181, 182; duck described, iii. 308.

Bread, twelve ounces of it, and nothing but water, the common allowance for four and twenty hours, among the primitive Christians of the East, i. 302; that of the Laplanders composed of bones of fishes, pounded and mixed with the inside tender bark of the pine-tree, i. 347.

Bream, description of the sea bream, iii. 400.

Breasts in women larger than in men; milk found in the breasts of men as well as of women, i. 286; black women's breasts, after bearing one child, hang down below the navel; it is customary among them to suckle the child at their backs, throwing the breasts over the shoulder, i. 354.

Breath of the lion is very offensive, ii. 159; manner of breathing in fishes, iii. 328.

Breeze, constant breeze produced by the melting of snows, i. 200; from sea increases gradually till twelve, sinks away, and totally hushed at five; upon its ceasing, the land breeze begins, increases till twelve at night, and is succeeded

in the morning by the sea-breeze; cause of these two breezes; sometimes the sea and land-breezes come at all hours; the land and sea-breezes on the coast of Malabar and at Congo, i. 201, 202.

Brisson, his method of classing animals, i. 392.

Bristol, a citizen of it who ruminated his food, ii. 40.

Britons, the ancient, considered the hare as an unclean animal, and religiously abstained from it, ii. 263; the cock a forbidden food among them, iii. 119.

Broches, the horns of the stag the first year, ii. 98.

Brock, the stag of the third year, ii. 98.

Brown (Sir Thomas) hoped one day to produce children by the same method as trees, i. 244; his opinion upon the cause of blackness in human complexions, i. 358.

Brun (Le) giving a painter directions about the passions, places the principal expressions of the face in the eye-brows, i. 276.

Brush, the name given by huntsmen to the tail of the fox, ii. 215.

Brutes, in those countries where men are most barbarous and stupid, are most active and sagacious, ii. 380.

Bubulus, an animal partaking of the mixed natures of the cow, the goat, and the deer; its description; has often been called the Barbary cow, from which it differs widely, ii. 80.

Bubalus, properly a gazelle of Africa, ii. 117.

Bubalus of the ancients supposed of the cow kind by Buffon, placed among the lower class of ruminant quadrupeds, ii. 46.

Buccinums, one or two of them viviparous, iv. 49.

Buck, capable of propagating at the age of one year; one buck sufficient for a hundred and fifty goats; is enervated in four years at most; becomes old before his seventh year, ii. 66; hunting the buck and the stag performed in the same manner in England, ii. 97; number of names invented by hunters for this animal; does not change his layer like the stag; manner of hunting him is much the same as that of stag hunting, ii. 106.

Buck-goat produces with the ewe an animal that, in two or three generations, returns to the sheep, retaining no marks of his ancient progenitor, ii. 56.

Buffalo, of the varieties of the cow kind, but two are really distinct, the cow and the buffalo; they bear antipathy to each other; they do not breed among each other, and no animals are more distinct and like each other less; are in abundance in Guinea and Malabar; it is a great swimmer; description of it; the veal of the young is not better eating than the beef of the old; they are natives of the warmer climates; yet are bred in several parts of Europe, particularly in Italy; the female produces one at a time; continues pregnant for twelve months; is afraid of fire; leather made of its hide is well known for thickness, softness, and impenetrability; guided by a ring thrust through the nose; milk of the female not so good as that of the cow; two buffaloes yoked draw more than four strong horses; its flesh hard and blackish, disagreeable to taste and smell; this animal wild in many parts of India, and dangerous; manner of hunting them; when tamed, no animal more patient or humble; inferior in size only to the elephant, the rhinoceros, or hippopotamus; the camelopard, or camel, if taller, neither so long, nor so corpulent; is fond of the water, and crosses the largest rivers without difficulty; has an aversion to red colours that resemble flame; in those countries where they are in plenty no person dresses in scarlet; they make most use of their feet in combat, and rather tread their enemies to death than gore them; ii. 46 to 53.

Buffon, (M.) his theory of the earth, and a detail of it, i. 27 to 29; questions that might be asked this most ingenious philosopher concerning his theory of the earth; he has brought together a multitude of facts relative to the history of the earth, 29; his system about the rudiments of animals, 240; objections against it, 241; thinks that women never become bald, 277; his description of the first sensations of a man just brought into existence, pointing out the steps by which he arrived at reality, 332 to 334.

Buffoon-bird, name our sailors gave the Numidian crane; its peculiar gestures and contortions; the French call it *demoiselle*; is a very scarce bird; the ancients have described a buffoon-bird, but not meant the Numidian crane, iii 236.

Bug, the May-bug. See *Beetles*.

Bugs, their habits; described; are often found coupling tail to tail; manner of destroying them; they devour fleas, and devour each other, iv. 181 to 183.

Bulbous, hair is so at the root, i. 277.

Bulin, a sea-snail, performs the office of male and female at the same time, iv. 49.

Bull, the gimerro asserted to be between the ass and the bull, ii. 30.

Bulfinch, bird of the sparrow kind, iii. 197, 198; may be taught to whistle to a regular tune, 213.

Bull-head, description of this fish, iii. 401.

Bulls, the wild, in Spain mean despicable animals; have nothing of that sternness of aspect remarkable in our bulls, ii. 47.

Bull's-eye, the name given by sailors to a terrible hurricane; described, i. 207.

Bunting, bird of the sparrow kind, iii. 197.

Burnet, his theory of the earth; a detail of that work, i. 20, 21.

Bustard, the largest land-bird that is a native of Britain; inhabits the open and extensive plain; is much larger than the turkey, the male generally weighing from twenty-five to twenty-seven pounds; its description; places where frequently seen in flocks of fifty and more; its food; they have centinels always placed at proper eminences, ever on the watch, to warn the flock of the appearance of danger; are often run-down by greyhounds; in what manner; they seldom wander above twenty or thirty miles from home; the males have a pouch, holding near seven quarts of water; they change their mates at the season of incubation, about the latter end of summer; separate in pairs, if there be a sufficiency of females for the males; otherwise the males fight until one of them falls; in France, some of those victims of gallantry found dead in the fields; their nests made upon the ground; they lay two eggs almost of the size of a goose-egg; hatch in about five weeks; the young run about as soon as out of the shell; they assemble in flocks in October, and keep together till April; their food in winter; in some parts of Switzerland they are found frozen in the fields in severe weather; when taken to a warm place, they again recover; usually live fifteen years, and are incapable of being propagated in a domestic state, iii. 136 to 138.

Butcher-bird, its description, with its habits; leads a life of continual combat; intrepidity of this little creature, in going to war with the pie, the crow, and the kestrel, all above four times bigger than itself; it fights upon the defensive, and often comes to the attack with advantage, particularly when the male and female unite to protect their young, and to drive away the more powerful birds of rapine; in what manner they sally forth against them; sometimes the combat ends with the destruction of the assailant, and also of the defender; the most redoubtable birds of prey respect them, and they fly in their company without fearing their power or avoiding their resentment; small birds are its usual food; and when it has killed the bird or insect, as asserted by the best authority, it fixes them upon some neighbouring thorn, and when thus spitted, pulls them to pieces with its bill; the smaller red butcher-bird migrates; the places where they are to be found; their nests, and the number of their eggs; the female feeds her young with caterpillars and other insects, but soon after accustoms them to flesh procured by the male with great industry; their nature very different from other birds of prey in their parental care; for instead of driving out their young from the nest to shift for themselves, they keep them with care, and even when adult do not forsake them; the whole brood thus live in a family together; each family afterwards live apart, and build in concert; upon the returning season of courtship, this union is at an end;

the manner of flying is always up and down, seldom direct or sideways; different kinds of this bird, iii. 105 to 107.

Butter, the fat of the manati serves in all cases instead of butter, ii. 355.

Butterfly, some kinds actually live upon little or nothing, i. 298; one of the principal ornaments of oriental poetry; in those countries, the insect is larger and more beautiful than with us; easily distinguished from flies of every other kind by their wings; Linnæus has reckoned up above seven hundred and sixty different kinds, yet the catalogue is incomplete; number and beautiful colours of its wings; butterflies can discover their mates at more than a mile distance; description of the head, corselet, and body; the eyes have not all the same form; but the outward coat has a lustre, in which may be discovered all the colours of the rainbow; when examined closely, it has the appearance of a multiplying-glass; the use of their horns or feelers, as yet unknown; the use of their trunks; difference between butterflies and moths; they often perceive the approach of the female at about two miles distance; by what sense is not easy to conceive; it has no organs for smelling; the female is larger than the male; if disturbed while united, the female flies off with the male on her back, entirely passive on the occasion; after junction they deposit their eggs and die; all females of this tribe are impregnated by the male by one aperture, and lay their eggs by another; every butterfly chooses, for her brood, instead of the plant most grateful in its winged state, that which it has fed upon in its reptile form; how they keep their eggs warm, and also entirely concealed; many do not lay till the winter warns them of their approaching end; some continue the whole winter in hollows of trees, and do not provide for posterity until the beginning of April, then leave their retreats, deposit their eggs, and die, iv. 241 to 247. See *Aurelia*, iv. 237, 238.

Buttock, in man, different from that of all other animals, i. 287.

Buzzard, a sluggish, inactive bird; often remains perched whole days upon the same bough; lives more upon frogs, mice, and insects, than upon birds; more troublesome to seize; its manner of living in summer; resembles the owl kind in his countenance more than other rapacious bird of prey; so little capable of instruction, that it is a proverb to call one obstinately ignorant, a buzzard; the honey-buzzard, the moor-buzzard, and the hen-barrier, are of this stupid tribe, and differ chiefly in their size, iii. 103, 104.

Byron (Commodore) our last voyager that has seen the gigantic race of mankind, i. 372.

C

Cabai, the same animal as the capibara, ii. 140.

Cachalot, a fish said to pursue a shoal of herrings, and to swallow thousands at a gulp, iii. 327; it has generally gone under the name of the spermaceti whale, till Mr. Pennant made the distinction, borrowing its name from the French; seven distinctions in this tribe; description; the throat of this animal very formidable; with ease it could swallow an ox; it terrifies the dolphins and porpoises so much, as often to drive them on shore; it contains two precious drugs, spermaceti and ambergris; the oil of this fish is easily convertible into spermaceti, by boiling it with a ley of pot-ash, and hardening it in the manner of soap; candles are now made of it; the balls of ambergris not found in all fishes of this kind, but chiefly in the oldest and strongest, iii. 353 to 355.

Cagui, or the Saki, is the largest monkey of the sagoin kind; its description, ii. 383.

Cageta, a mountain near it, was split by an earthquake, i. 94.

Cairo, in what manner they produce their six or seven thousand chickens at a time, iii. 124.

Calao, the horned Indian raven, iii. 156.

Calcination, all animal substances when calcined are the same, iv. 91.

Calf, name given to the young of the hind, or the female of the stag, iii. 95.

Calf, or hind-calf; the stag called so the first year, ii. 98.

Callitrix, the green monkey of St. Jago, of the ancient continent; its description, ii. 381.

Callyonymus, the dragonet; description of this fish, iii. 399.

Calms, attended with a deluge of rain; why, and where, i. 199.

Camblet made of hair of animals about Angora, ii. 68.

Camel, a ruminating animal, ii. 39; camel and dromedary not two distinct kinds, only a variety of the same, which has subsisted time immemorial; the only sensible difference between these two races, they produce with each other, and the mixed breed is considered the best; of the two, the dromedary is far the most numerous; countries where the camel and dromedary are found; neither can subsist or propagate in the climates towards the north; Arabia the most adapted to the support and production of this animal; the camel the most temperate of all animals; it can continue to travel several days without drinking, and is often six or seven days without any sustenance; its feet formed to travel upon sand, and utterly unfit for moist or marshy places; many vain efforts tried to propagate the camel in Spain; they have been transported into America, but have multiplied in neither; they might perhaps produce in these countries, but would in a few years degenerate; their strength and their patience would forsake them; and instead of enriching, become a burden to their keepers; uses to which this animal is put among the Arabians; its education; it has a fifth stomach, which serves as a reservoir to hold a greater quantity of water than immediately wanted; when the camel finds itself pressed with thirst, it throws up a quantity of this water by a simple contraction of the muscles, into the other stomachs; travellers, when straitened for water, have often killed their camels for what they expected to find within them; countries where commerce is carried on by means of camels; trading journeys in caravans; capable of carrying a thousand weight; their food; pursue their way when the guides are utterly astray; its patience and docility when loaded; Buffon considers the camel to be the most domesticated of all other creatures; in what manner the female receives the male; one male left to wait on ten females, the rest castrated; they live from forty to fifty years; every part of this animal converted to some useful purpose; its very excrements are not useless, iii. 5 to 10.

Cameleon, its dimensions and appetites; has a power of driving the air it breathes over every part of the body, iv. 113; changes of its colour; it is an error that it assumes the colour of the object that it approaches; description of it by Le Brun, iv. 114; it often moves one eye, when the other is at rest; sometimes one eye seems to look directly forward, while the other looks backward; and one looks upward, while the other regards the earth, iv. 115.

Camelopard described; dimensions of a young one; inhabits the deserts of Africa; no animal, from its disposition or its formation, less fitted for a state of natural hostility; it lives entirely upon vegetables, and when grazing, spreads its fore-legs wide to reach the pasture; known to the ancients, but rarely seen in Europe; often seen tame at Grand Cairo, in Egypt; Pompey exhibited at one time ten upon the theatre, ii. 415, 416.

Camerarius, his description of the perfections a horse ought to possess, ii. 22.

Canada, above thirty thousand martins' skins usually imported from that country into England, ii. 239.

Canal. See *Blood*, i. 336.

Canary-bird taught to pick up the letters of the alphabet at the word of command, to spell any person's name in company, iii. 57; by the name originally from the Canary Islands; comes to us from Germany, where they are bred in numbers; at what period brought into Europe is not known; about a century ago they were sold at very high prices, and kept only for the amusement of the great; in its native islands it is of a dusky gray colour, and so different from those seen in Europe as to raise a doubt about its species; rules and instructions for breeding them in a domestic state; apparatus for breeding in Germany; food the old ones must be supplied with, when the young ones are excluded; so prolific are these birds sometimes, that the female will be ready to hatch a second time before the first is able to quit the nest; this bird kept in company with the linnet, or the gold-finch, pairs and produces a mixed breed, most like the canary-bird, and resembling it in its song, 210 to 213.

Canary-boar described, ii. 144.

Cancerous breasts cured by the suckling of the ruheth, or the land-toad, iv. 87.

Candle quickly extinguishes in an exhausted receiver, and why, i. 192.

Cannons filled with water, and left to freeze, burst, i. 106.

Cantharides, well known in the shops by the name of Spanish flies, and for their use in blisters; their description, with the differences from each other; the countries where, and trees on which, they are seen; it is reported, that the country people expect the return of these insects every seven years; their bad smell is a guide for those who catch them; they smell so disagreeable, as to be perceived at a great distance, especially about sun-set, though not seen at the time; they yield a deal of volatile caustic salt; their qualities; the effects fall principally upon the urinary passages; in what manner they are killed, iv. 298, 299

Cape de Verde islands; a south wind prevails in them during the month of July, i. 200.

Cape of Good Hope, a north-west wind blows there during the month of September, i. 200; at the Cape of Good Hope it is customary to hunt the elephant for its teeth; in what manner; account of an unhappy huntsman, ii. 406.

Capibara, or *Cabiai*, an animal resembling a hog of about two years old; its description; some naturalists have called it the water-hog, and why; a native of South America, and chiefly frequenting the borders of lakes and rivers, like the otter; it seizes the fish, upon which it preys, with its hoofs and teeth; lives also upon fruits, corn, and sugar-canes; is often seen sitting up like a dog that is taught to beg; its cry resembles the braying of an ass more than the grunting of a hog; its only place of safety is the water, into which it plunges when pursued, and keeps so long at the bottom that the hunter can have no hopes of taking it there; when young is easily tamed; its flesh has a fishy taste, but its head is said to be excellent, ii. 140 to 142.

Capons taught to clutch a fresh brood of chickens throughout the year, iii. 123.

Capon of Pharaoh, supposed the true ibis; is a devourer of serpents, and follows the caravans that go to Mecca, to feed upon the offal of the animals killed on the journey, iii. 233.

Caracal, or the Siagush, a native of the East Indies, resembles the lynx in size and form, ii. 177.

Caracol, a town situated at the foot of the Andes, i. 88.

Caraguata, a plant in the West Indies, which clings round the tree it happens to be near; it keeps away that nourishment designed to feed the trunk, and at last entirely destroys its supporter, i. 233.

Carapo, description of this fish, iii. 402.

Carassa, a volcano in South America, i. 62.

Caravan, a single lion of the desert often attacks an entire caravan, ii. 155; the assemblage called a caravan sometimes composed of numbers amounting to ten thousand, iii. 8.

Carcajou, name given by the North Americans to the glutton; its manner of killing the rein-deer, ii. 129.

Caribou, name the North Americans give the rein-deer, ii. 120.

Carli, (*Father*.) See *Monkey*, ii. 379.

Carnivorous animals, there is one class that pursue in a pack, and encourage each other by their mutual cries; generally lead a life of famine and fatigue; support a state of famine for several weeks together, i. 405, 406; milk in those animals is more sparing than in others, i. 413. See *Animals*, ii. 37 to 39.

Carnivorous birds seek for such as are of the size most approaching their own, iii. 78. See *Birds*.

Carp, an experiment made with this fish in a large vase of water, under an air-pump, iii. 328; one found by Buffon not less than a hundred years old; this discovery confirmed by other authors, 332; continues in the egg not above three weeks, 334; Mr. Tull famous for his invention of spaying carp to give it a fine flavour, 335; its description, 403; the method of fattening it in a damp cellar; it has been known thus to live for a fortnight, to grow exceedingly fat, and to get a superior flavour, 406.

Carriers, pigeons used to carry letters, iii. 186.

Carrión-crow, resembles the raven in its appetites, its laying, and manner of bringing up its young, iii. 153.

Cartesius, his theory to explain the invariable motion of the winds, not quite so absurd as that of Dr. Lyster, i. 197.

Carthagera, in America; the heat of the hottest day ever known in Europe is continual there; the heat of its climate affects the speech of its inhabitants, which is soft and slow, and their words generally broken; more than three parts of our army destroyed by the climate in our unsuccessful attack upon it, i. 186.

Carthamus, or bastard-saffron, strongly purgative to man; parrots very fond of it, iii. 180.

Cartilage, the thyroid cartilage, i. 285, 286; cartilages in youth elastic and pliant, in age become at last hard and bony, and why, 337

Cartilaginous fishes; their general confirmation; supposed they grow larger every day till they die; their internal structure; are possessed of a two-fold power of breathing; apertures by which they breathe; the cartilaginous shark, or ray, live for some hours after they are taken; fishes of this tribe possessed of powers that other fishes are wholly deprived of; can remain under water, without taking breath; and can venture their heads above the deep, and continue for hours out of their native element; their season and manner of copulating, and of bringing forth; little difference between the viviparous and oviparous kinds in this class of fishes; five divisions of the cartilaginous fish, iii. 360 to 363.

Cassowary, a bird first brought into Europe by the Dutch from Java, in the East Indies, where only it is found; its description; the part which most distinguishes this animal is the head, which inspires some degree of terror; its internal parts described; their intestines are thirteen times shorter than those of the ostrich; it has the head of a warrior, the eye of a lion, the defence of a porcupine, and the swiftness of a courser; is not fierce in its natural character; how it defends itself; extraordinary manner of going; swallows every thing that comes within the capacity of his gullet; the Dutch assert that it can devour glass, iron, and stones, and can even live on burning coals, without the smallest fear, or the least injury; the largest of its eggs is fifteen inches round one way, and twelve the other; places where this animal is found; it has not multiplied in any considerable degree, as a king of Java made a present of one to the captain of a Dutch ship as a rarity, iii. 71 to 74.

Catacombs of Egypt, i. 381.

Catamountain hunts for the hare or the rabbit, i. 404; the ocelot of Mr. Buffon; its description, ii. 176; is one of the fiercest, and, for its size, one of the most destructive animals in the world; no arts can tame or soften their natures, 180.

Catanea, a city utterly overthrown by an earthquake, i. 69.

Cutaphractus, or kabasson is one of the largest kinds of the armadillo, ii. 327.

Cataracts of the Rhine, and of the Nile; the cataract of the river Velino, in Italy, is above a hundred and fifty feet perpendicular; a cataract near the city of Gottenburg in Sweden; other cataracts, i. 130.

Cataract of the eye; Mr. Cheselden having couched a boy of thirteen, who, to that time, had been blind, and at once having restored him to sight, curiously marked the progress of his mind upon the occasion, i. 313.

Caterpillars, their differences from all other insects; all these animals are hatched from the eggs of butterflies; during the winter, the greatest number of caterpillars are in an egg state; in the aurelia state, they are seemingly deprived of life and motion; some do not make any change at the approach of winter, but choose themselves some retreat, and there remain quite motionless, and as insensible as if actually dead; caterpillars of this kind are found in great numbers together, enclosed in one common web that covers them all; there are some of this kind, whose butterflies live all the winter, and where; a single caterpillar eats double its own weight of leaves in a day, and seems no way disordered by the meal; the body of the caterpillar anatomically considered; avidity with which they feed; number of their stigmata, or those holes through which the animal is supposed to breathe; it has eighteen lumps; the experiment of Malpighi to

ascertain their use ; all caterpillars spin at one time or another ; many of them change their skins five or six times in a season ; and in what manner ; change into an aurelia ; their retreats in that state, iv. 226 to 237 ; there are thousands of fishes, birds and insects, that live chiefly upon caterpillars ; a single sparrow and its mate, that have young ones, destroy above three thousand caterpillars in a week ; some of the kind, fitted only to live upon leaves and plants, will eat each other, in preference to their vegetable food ; the bodies of the larger kind serve as a nest to various flies, that very carefully deposit their eggs in them ; number of worms remain within the body of the caterpillar, devouring its entrails without destroying its life ; the ichneumon tribe is not the caterpillar's offspring, as supposed, but its murderers, 247 to 250.

Cat-fish, its description, iii. 400.

Cats, the wild hunt for the squirrel or the mouse, i. 404 ; lead a solitary ravenous life ; the whole tribe seek their food alone, and never unite for mutual support ; and, except at certain seasons, are enemies to each other ; all of the cat kind devour nothing but flesh ; and starve upon any other provision ; are fierce, rapacious, subtle, and cruel ; their greatest force lies in their claws ; the cat goes with young fifty-six days, and seldom brings forth above five or six at a time ; the male often devours the kittens ; before they are a year old they are fit to engender ; the female seeks the male with cries ; nor is their copulation performed without great pain, and why ; when young are very playful and amusing ; cats hunt the serpents in the Isle of Cyprus ; any animal weaker than themselves, is to them an indiscriminate object of destruction ; the mouse is their favourite game, and they patiently watch a whole day until the mouse appears ; a flagrant mark by which the cat discovers its natural malignity ; their eyes see better in darkness than in light, and why ; if the inhabitant quits the house, the cat still remains ; is particularly fearful of water, of cold, and of ill smells ; is excessively fond of some plants, such as valerian, marum, and cat-mint ; particularly loves fish ; its sleep is very light ; its hair sends forth shining sparks, if rubbed in the dark ; the wild breed with the tame ; description of the wild cat ; inhabits the most mountainous and woody parts ; lives mostly in trees, and feeds only by night ; the cat was much higher in esteem among our ancestors than it is at present ; laws of Howel concerning the price of cats ; cats were not naturally bred in our forests ; of all quadrupeds, the wild cat is, perhaps, that whose intestines are proportionably the smallest and the shortest, and why ; common to the new continent as well as the old ; the blue-cat, the lion-cat, or more properly, the cat of Angora ; the cats in Syria and Persia remarkable for their long soft hair, ii. 145 to 153 ; all the cat kind are kept off by the fires, which the inhabitants light to preserve their flocks and herds ; and they hunt rather by the sight than the smell ; it happens that the lion pursues the jackal, or the wild dog, while they are hunting upon the scent and merely for themselves ; the lion is then an unwelcome intruder upon the fruits of their toil ; from thence, probably, has arisen the story of the lion's providor, 158 ; the lion devours a great deal at a time, and generally fills himself for two or three days to come ; in the deserts and forests, his most usual prey are the gazelles and the monkeys, 159 ; the race of cats noxious in proportion to their power to do mischief ; inhabit the most torrid latitudes of India, Africa, and America, and have never been able to multiply beyond the torrid zone, they seldom attack man, though provoked ; of all animals these are the most sullen, and, to a proverb, untameable ; they still preserve their fierce and treacherous spirit, 178 ; different classes of the kind from the lion to the cat, 182 ; the wild cat and the martin seldom meet without a combat ; it is not a match for the martin, 237 ; the ichneumon injudiciously called the cat of Pharoah, 241 ; cats of Constantinople, a name of the genet, and why, 247.

Cattle, we have the best breed of horned cattle in Europe ; the large hornless breed in some parts of England, originally from Poland, ii. 43 ; the Dutch bring great quantities of lean cattle from Denmark to fatten on their own rich grounds ; that of Ukraine becomes fat, and is considered the largest breed of all Europe ; in Switzerland these animals grow to a large size ; not so in France ; size in Barbary, Ethiopia, Persia, and Tartary, 47 ; leather-mouthed cattle, 61 ; liable to be destroyed by the South American bat, vampyre, 334.

Caverns, the amazing cavern of Eldenhole, in Derbyshire; the dreadful cavern in the country of the Arrian Indians, called the gulph of Pluto, described by Ælian; the famous cavern of Candia, supposed to be entirely the work of art; cavern of Maestricht; its description; no part of the world has a greater number of artificial caverns than Spain; in those countries where the climate is very severe, still made use of as houses; in general deserted by every race of meaner animals, except the bat; the caverns called Oakey-hole, the Devil's-hole, and Penpark-hole, in England; description of them; the cavern of Antiparos, and its discovery; Magni's amusing account of it; how natural caverns formed; two hundred feet as much as the lowest of them is found to sink, i. 41 to 48; one in Africa, near Fez, continually sends forth smoke or flames, 62.

Cavier, the inhabitants of Norway prepare from eggs found in the body of the porpoise, a savoury liquor, which makes a delicate sauce, and is good when eaten with bread, iii. 359; it is made with the roe of the sturgeon; more in request in other countries of Europe than with us; formerly in much request at the politest table in England, now sunk entirely into disuse; is a considerable merchandise among the Turks, Greeks, and Venetians; manner of making it, iii. 387, 388.

Causes, the investigation of final causes a barren study; and, like a virgin dedicated to the Deity, brings forth nothing, i. 19.

Caustic, cantharides yield a great deal of volatile caustic salt, iv. 299.

Cayman, a sort of crocodile, iv. 96.

Cayopolin, a kind of opossum; its description, ii. 389.

Cea, an island washed away with several thousand inhabitants, i. 81.

Cells, made by the bees, iv. 261.

Cenere, a mount of recent appearance, i. 97.

Centinel. See *Animals*, i. 406. See *Marmouts*, ii. 279. See *Bustard*, iii. 137.

Centipes, the scolopendra, iv. 191.

Centriscus, a kind of cartilaginous fish, iii. 392.

Cephus, name given by the ancients to the monkey now called mona, ii. 381.

Cepola, the description of this fish, iii. 400.

Cerigo, an island of the Archipelago, where many wild asses are found, ii. 24.

Cetaceous fishes, the whale and its varieties resemble quadrupeds in their internal structure, and in some of their appetites and affections; they are constrained every two or three minutes to come up to the surface to take breath, as well to spout out through their nostril (for they have but one) that water which they sucked in while gaping for their prey; the senses of these animals superior to those of other fishes; and it is most likely that all animals of the kind can hear; they never produce above one young, or two at the most; and this the female suckles in the manner of quadrupeds, her breasts being placed as in the human kind, above the navel; interesting story founded upon fact from Waller; distinctive marks of this tribe, iii. 336 to 339.

Chacrelas, white men go by that name in the East Indies, i. 361.

Chætodon. See *Cat-fish*, iii. 400.

Chaffinch, a bird of the sparrow kind, iii. 197 to 199; time of emigration of the hen, 52.

Chapotonadas, a distemper in America, i. 187.

Charles XII. when shot at the siege of Frederickshall, was seen to clap his hand on the hilt of his sword, i. 343.

Charossi, the only sort of horses for hunting lions, ii. 160.

Charybdis, a gulph; Nichola Pesce jumped into it, continued for three quarters of an hour below, and at last appeared holding a golden cup in one hand, and making his way among the waves with the other; description of this gulph, i. 171. 172.

Chase, men of every age and nation have made that of the stag a favourite pursuit; in our country it was ever esteemed a principal diversion of the great, ii. 95; these sports reserved by sovereigns for particular amusement, and when; in the reigns of William Rufus and Henry the First, it was less criminal to destroy a human being than a beast of chase; sacred edifices thrown down for room to beasts of chase, ii. 96; chase of the stag, as performed in England; terms used by hunters in that chase, 97, 98; the same in Sicily; and in China 102; chase

of the fox; cant terms used by the huntsmen in it, 214, 215; of all varieties, that of the ostrich the most laborious, is also the most entertaining; description of it, iii. 67.

Chasms, amazing in the Alps, and still more in the Andes, i. 40; causes that produce chasms or fissures, 42.

Chatterer, a bird, native of Germany; its description, iii. 159, 160.

Cheese, the inhabitants of Canada use no other than the milk of the hind, or the female of the stag, ii. 104; those of Lapland little and well tasted; never breed mites, ii. 126.

Cheops, the oldest measure of the human figure in his monument, in the first pyramid of Egypt, i. 374.

Cheselden. See *Cataract*, i. 313 to 315.

Chevrotin, or little Guinea Deer, the least of all cloven-footed quadrupeds, and perhaps the most beautiful; is most delicately shaped; its description; native of India, Guinea, and the warm climates between the tropics; the male in Guinea has horns, but the female is without any; they chiefly abound in Java and Ceylon, ii. 81, 82.

Cheney, suspected the quantity of water on the earth daily decreasing, i. 108.

Chicken, an amazing history of it in the egg, by Malpighi and Haller, i. 245; in what manner six or seven thousand are produced at a time at Grand Cairo; capons clutch a fresh brood of chickens throughout the year, iii. 123.

Child, history of the child in the womb, i. 251 to 256; children of negroes able to walk at two months old, at least to move from one place to another; in our own country seldom able to walk under a twelvemonth; skin of children newly brought forth, is always red, and why; the size of a new-born infant about twenty inches, and its weight twelve pounds, 261; when newly born, pass most of their time in sleeping, and awake with crying; in cold countries continue to be suckled for four or five years together; in Canada and Greenland mothers are often seen suckling two or three children of different ages at a time, 262; child's growth less every year till the time of puberty, when it seems to start up of a sudden, 263; in some countries speak sooner than in others, and why; children of the Italians speak sooner than those of the Germans; various methods pointed out to improve the intellects of children, 365 to 367; inherit the accidental deformities of their parents; instances of it, 360; white children frequently produced from black parents; but never black children from two whites, 361; many instances of the child in the womb being marked by the strong affections of the mother; how performed is not known; hard to conceive that the child in the womb should take the print of the father's features, 363 to 365.

Chimborazo, a remarkable mountain in South America, i. 91.

Chinese have neither flats nor sharps in their music, i. 321; their horses weak, little, ill-shaped, and cowardly, ii. 17; description of that people, i. 350, 351.

Chorosan, in Persia, bodies previously embalmed, and buried in the sands of that country, preserved from corruption a thousand years, i. 380.

Chough, description of the Cornish Chough, iii. 154.

Christopher (St.) See *Fish*, iii. 423.

Chrysalis, or the *Aurelia*, iv. 234.

Chryses, an island sunk near Lemnos, i. 81.

Cicero, a long poem of his in praise of the halcyon, of which but two lines remain, iii. 316.

Circassians, described, i. 355.

Circe, an enchantress, armed her son with a spear headed with the spine of the trygon, iii. 375.

Circulation of the blood. See *Blood*, i. 336, 337.

Civet, the species distinguished into two kinds; Mr. Buffon calls one the civet, the other the zibet; distinctions between the two kinds; the civet thirty inches long; both civet and zibet considered as varieties of the same animal, as former naturalists have done; the civet resembles the weasel kind, in what; differs from them, in what; the opening of the pouch or hag, the receptacle of the civet; manner of taking the civet from the pouch; although a native of the warmest climate, this animal lives in temperate and even cold countries; the quantity of

perfume which a single animal affords, generally depends upon its health and nourishment; kinds of food it likes best; drinks rarely, yet it makes urine often; and, upon such occasions, the male is not distinguishable from the female; numbers of these animals bred in Holland, and the perfume of Amsterdam reckoned the purest of any; the quantity greater proportionably to the quality and abundance of the food; this perfume so strong that it communicates to all parts of the animal's body, to its fur and skin; a person shut up with one of them in a close room cannot support the perfume; manner of chosing the perfume; the places of considerable traffic in it; the animal irritated, its scent becomes greater; and tormented, its sweat is still stronger, and serves to adulterate or increase what is otherwise obtained from it; civet a more grateful perfume than musk; sold in Holland for fifty shillings an ounce; its eyes shine in the night; sees better in the dark than by day; breeds very fast in climates where heat conduces to propagation; thought a wild fierce animal; never thoroughly familiar; lives by prey; birds and animals it can overcome; its teeth strong and cutting; its claws feeble and inflexible; this perfume quite discontinued in prescription; persons of taste proscribe it from the toilet, ii. 248 to 251.

Clavicles, or collar-bones, what animals have them; Mr. Buffon says none but moukeys, but this is an oversight, i. 286.

Claws of the lion give a false idea of its power; we ascribe to its force the effects of its arms, i. 291; the weasel kind neither draw in, nor extend their claws, as cats do, ii. 225; those of the civet feeble and inflexible, 248.

Climates, calamities in those where the air is condensed by cold, i. 188; cause obvious, and sufficient to produce blackness of negroes, 358; complexions of different countries darken in proportion to the heat of the region; next to human influence, the climate has the strongest effects upon the nature and form of quadrupeds, 408; those excessively hot, unfavourable to horses, ii. 17; in general, water-fowls of no particular climate, iii. 296.

Cloth now made worse than some years past; Flemings possessed the art of cloth-working in a superior degree, ii. 60.

Clove-trees cut down by the Dutch at Ternate to raise the price of the spice; soon had reason to repent of their avarice, i. 188.

Clouds, the forerunners of a terrible hurricane, called by the sailors the bull's eye, i. 207; dashing against each other produce electrical fire; water evaporates, and rising forms clouds; the theory upon it; that of Dr. Hamilton; the author's theory of evaporation, 211, 212; at once pour down their contents, and produce a deluge; reflecting back images of things on earth, like mirrors; during the winter months, under the Line, usually about May, the whole horizon seems wrapt in a muddy cloud, 217.

Clupea, or *Herring*, its description, iii. 403.

Coati, a monkey of the new continent, described, ii. 382.

Coan, the name of a dwarf lately dead at Chelsea, i. 368.

Coast of Italy is bordered with rocks of marble of different kinds; quarries of which may easily be distinguished at a distance from sea; those of France from Brest to Bourdeaux, and Spain, composed of rocks, i. 158; of the sea, have peculiar winds, 201; deadly winds all along those of the Persian Gulph, and those of India, 206.

Coatimondi, extreme length of its snout; its description; very subject to eat its own tail; its habits, iii. 22, 23.

Cobitis, the loach, description of this fish, iii. 404.

Cobra di Capello, a kind of serpent, iv. 135, 147, 148.

Cochineal, a description of this insect, as in our shops brought from America; difference between the domestic and the wild cochineal; precautions used by those who take care of these insects; the propagator has a new harvest thrice a year; various methods of killing them; produce different colours as brought to us; our cochineal is only the females, used both for dying and medicine, iv. 300, 301.

Cock, of all birds the cock the oldest companion of man, and first reclaimed from the forest; scarcely two in the whole species that exactly resemble each other in plumage and form; species of cock from Japan, covered over with hair instead of feathers; the western world had the cock from Persia; Aristophanes'

cock the Persian bird, it was one of the forbidden foods among the ancient Britons; Persia, that first introduced it to us, no longer knows it in its natural form: countries where it is wild; peculiarities in a wild condition; another peculiarity in those of the Indian woods, their bones, when boiled, are as black as ebony; the Athenians had cock-matches as we; no animal of greater courage, when opposed to one of its own species; in Chiua, India, the Philippine islands, and over the East, cock-fighting the sport and amusement of kings and princes; cocks in China as bold, or bolder, than ours; and of more strength with less weight; its great courage proceeds from being the most salacious of all birds; a single cock suffices for a dozen hens; and is the only animal whose spirits are not abated by indulgence; soon grows old, and in three or four years becomes unfit for the purposes of impregnation; how long cocks live, left to themselves, not well ascertained; Aldrovandus makes their age to be ten years; are injured, as Linnæus asserts, by elder berries, iii. 118 to 124; the black chiefly found in heathy mountains, and piny forests, 138; cock of the wood. See *Woodcock*.

Cockle, a bivalved shell-fish, iv. 60.

Cocoa, the elephant eats the plants to the roots, ii. 295.

Cod, from the banks of Newfoundland, pursues the whiting, which flies before it to the southern shores of Spain, iii. 327; spawn in one season, as Lewenhoeck asserts, above nine millions of eggs, or peas, contained in a single row, 333; its description, 402; fishery in Newfoundland; where taken in such large quantities, that they supply all Europe with a considerable share of provision; when their provision is exhausted they go to the polar seas, where they deposit their roes in full security, 409.

Cold promotes evaporation, although diminishing the force of other menstrooms, i. 212; extremity of it not less productive of tawny complexions than that of heat, 359; excessive, preserves bodies from corruption, 379; some fishes rendered so torpid by cold in the northern rivers as to be frozen up in the masses of ice, where they continue, for months together, without life or sensation, prisoners of congelation, waiting a warmer sun to restore them to life and liberty, iii. 421.

Collar-bones, what animals have them, i. 286.

Colliers, eight dropped down dead by the vapour of the mines in Scotland as if shot, i. 52.

Colour, none refreshes the sight so well as green, i. 17; of the sea, not from any thing floating in it, but from different reflections of rays of light; the proof, 169; different colours of the eye, 275; whence proceeds the tawny of the North American Indians, 358, 359; different of the waters of the same sea, 159; hair takes its colour from juices flowing through it, 277; that of the object contributes to form an idea of the distance at which it appears, 315; of all those by which mankind is diversified, ours most beautiful to the eye, and most advantageous, 356; those changes the African, the Asiatic, or the American, undergo in their colour, are but accidental deformities, which might probably be removed, 361; nothing exceeds the delicate regularity of those of the zebra, ii. 31; change of colour in the hair obtains, in some degree, in all quadrupeds, 229; different in several parts of the fur of the sable, 239.

Comets, their appearance formerly terrible to mankind; their number much greater than that of the planets; they roll in orbits; experience has not sufficiently confirmed the truth of the investigation about their returning periods, i. 11.

Complexion, extremity of cold not less productive of a tawny than that of heat; not easy to conceive how the sun whitens wax and linen, and darkens the human complexion; the sun not the only cause of darkening it; the sun tinges the complexion in proportion to its vicinity, i. 358, 359.

Compté's (Le) account of an ape he saw in the straits of Molucca, ii. 362.

Concretions, scarce an animal, or a part of their bodies, in which concretions are not formed; experience has found but few cures by the efficacy of these concretions; often prove fatal to the animal that bears them, ii. 78.

Gondamine (La) knows a fish possessed of the powers of the torpedo, and every way resembling a lamprey, iii. 380.

Condou, anomalous animal of the goat kind; its description, ii. 80, 81.

Condur, possesses, in a higher degree than the eagle, all the qualities that render

it formidable to the feathered kind, to beasts, and to man himself; is eighteen feet across the wings extended, according to Acosta, Garcilasso, and Desmarchais; the beak so strong as to pierce the body of a cow; two of them able to devour it; they do not abstain from man himself; fortunately there are few of the species the Indians believe that they will carry off a deer, or a young calf, in their talons, as eagles would a hare or a rabbit; and that their sight is piercing and their air terrible; that they seldom frequent the forests, as they require a large space for the display of their wings; they come down to the sea-shore at certain seasons; when their prey fails upon land, they then feed upon dead fish, and such nutritious substances as are thrown upon the shore; their countenances not so terrible as old writers have represented; those who have seen this animal, say the body is as large as that of a sheep; many instances of its carrying away children; circumstantial account of this bird by P. Feuillee, the only traveller who has accurately described it; it is supposed that the great bird called the Rock, described by Arabian writers, and so much exaggerated by fable, is but a species of the condor; countries where it is found; in the deserts of Pachomac, men seldom venture to travel; its flesh as disagreeable as carrion, iii. 88 to 91.

Conepate, an animal resembling the skiuk in all things except size, ii. 243.

Congelation. See *Blood*, ii. 280.

Congo, the land and sea-breezes there, i. 202; the inhabitants of that country desire ardently to prostitute their wives and daughters to strangers for trifling advantages, 270.

Constantinople, its cats; name given to the genets, and why, ii. 247.

Continent of America; that part under the line is cool and pleasant; either shaded by mountains, or refreshed by breezes from the sea, i. 357.

Coot, description of that bird, iii. 260; residence and nest; rears two or three broods in a season; sometimes swims down the current, till it reaches the sea, dangers encountered in this voyage, 261, 262.

Capel, manner of making that vessel, i. 99.

Copulation, natural instinct for the proper times; instances of it, i. 413, 414; gnats produce young without copulation, iv. 306.

Coquallin, the Brasillian squirrel, so called by Buffon, ii. 270.

Coral, the common red never met with in the fossil world, i. 33.

Coral-serpent, described, iv. 147.

Coral-plants, their various appearances; opinion of count Marsigli upon corals; Mr. Ellis proves it the work of reptiles of the polypus kind; principal experiment to this purpose, iv. 325, 326.

Corallines, called *fungi madreporae*, iv. 326.

Coret, a sea snail, performs the office of male and female, iv. 49.

Coriander used in dressing a hare in the true Roman taste, ii. 263.

Corin, name of the third variety of gazelles, by Mr. Buffon, ii. 76.

Cormorant, its description and food; remarkably voracious, with a sudden digestion; has a rank and disagreeable smell; and is more foetid than even carrion; its form disagreeable; its voice hoarse and croaking; all its qualities obscene; no wonder Milton makes Satan personate this bird; objection against this passage of Milton's *Paradise Lost* vindicated; fishes in fresh water, and in the depths of the ocean; builds in cliffs of rocks, and in trees; preys in the day time, and by night; once used in England for fishing, and in what manner; how educated in China for the purposes of fishing; the best fisher of all birds; a most amusing spectacle, standing upon a cliff on the shore to see it dive after its prey; sometimes has caught the fish by the tail; the fins prevent its being swallowed in that position; how it manages the fish in this case, iii. 274 to 277; remarked for the quickness of its sight, 279.

Corn, the flying squirrel is apt to do a great deal of damage in the corn-fields, ii. 275.

Cornaro, lived a hundred years with a constitution naturally feeble, i. 339.

Cornwall, pilchards make that coast a place of resort; their arrival proclaimed by the birds, and the larger fishes, iii. 413.

Coromandel, dreadful tempests wholly unknown along its coasts, i. 200; amazing size of oysters along that coast, iv. 60.

Corrira, or the Runner, a bird of the crane kind : its description, iii. 252.

Corruption, excessive cold preserves bodies from it ; and a great degree of dryness produced by heat ; earth, if drying and astringent, produces the same effect ; bodies never corrupt at Spitzbergen, though buried for thirty years ; men and animals buried in the sands of Arabia preserved from corruption for ages, as if actually embalmed ; corruption of dead bodies entirely caused by the fermentation of the humours ; bodies buried in the monastery of the Cordeliers at Thoulouse, preserved from corruption ; bodies previously embalmed buried in the sands of Chorosan, in Persia, preserved from corruption for a thousand years ; amazing preservation from it, in a mummy lately dug up in France, i. 379 to 381.

Coryphæna, the razor-fish, its description, iii. 400.

Cotopaxi, volcano in South America, described by Ulloa, i. 62 ; more than three geographical miles above the surface of the sea, 91.

Cotton-tree, the seed intoxicates parrots, as wine does man, iii. 180.

Cottus, the bull-head ; description of this fish, iii. 401.

Couando, much less than the porcupine, its description, ii. 317, 318.

Cougar of America, resembles the tiger in natural ferocity, though far inferior in its dimensions, iii. 20.

Cougar, the red tiger, by Mr. Buffon, ii. 170 ; extremely common in South America ; make frequent incursions by night into the midst of the streets, carrying off dogs and other domestic creatures ; in what manner the Indians encounter it, 171.

Coullerneb, remarkable bird of the Penguin kind. See *Puffin*, iii. 292.

Cows, allured by music, i. 322 ; of ruminant animals, the cow kind deserves the first rank ; meanest peasants in Germany, Poland, and Switzerland, kill one cow at least for their own table ; salted and hung up, is preserved as a delicacy the year round ; cows want the upper fore-teeth ; in no part of Europe cows grow so large, yield more milk, or more readily fatten, than in England ; make no particular distinction in her herbage, indiscriminately devouring the proper quantity ; it gives back more than it takes from the soil ; the age of the cow known by the teeth and horns ; the number of its teeth ; have eight cutting-teeth in the lower jaw ; manner of renewing them ; the horns more surely determine this animal's age, and how ; while this animal lives, the horns lengthen ; wants in order what it has in neck ; the larger the dew-lap, the smaller the quantity of its milk ; the kind to be found in every part of the world ; larger in proportion to the richness of the pasture ; Africa remarkable for the largest and smallest cattle of this kind ; as also India, Poland, and Switzerland ; among the Eluth Tartars, the cow so large, that a tall man can only reach the tip of its shoulder ; of all quadrupeds, the cow most liable to alteration from its pasture ; the breed of the Isle of man, and most parts of Scotland, much less than in England, also differently shaped ; the breed improved by foreign mixture, adapted to supply the imperfections of our own ; such as purely British, far inferior in size to those of the Continent ; the cow, the urus, and the bison, animals of the same kind ; difference in size not so remarkable as those in its form, hair, and horns ; many considered as a different kind, and names given to them as a distinct species, when in reality all the same ; only two varieties of the kind really distinct, the cow and the buffalo ; they bear an antipathy to each other ; scarce a part of the world where the cow kind is not found ; variety of the horns ; those in Iceland are without horns ; the Barbary cow, or zebu ; of all animals, the cow most extensively propagated ; an inhabitant of the frozen fields of Iceland and the burning deserts of Lybia ; other animals preserve their nature or their form with inflexible perseverance ; the cows suit themselves to the appetites and convenience of mankind ; no animal has a greater variety of kinds, none more humble and pliant ; the cow and bison breed among each other ; the cow does not breed with the buffalo ; no animals more distinct, or have stronger antipathies to each other ; the cow goes nine months with young ; the grunting or Siberian cow, and the little African or zebu, are different races of the bison ; animals of the cow kind by naturalists extended to eight or ten sorts, reduced to two ; an animal of the cow kind no naturalist has described ; the description of it, ii. 40 to 55 ; the Greeks compared the eyes of a beautiful woman to those of a cow, 76 ; it eats two hundred and seventy-six plants, and rejects two hundred and eighteen, 133.

Cow bezoar, a factitious sort, ii. 78.

Crab, a ruminating fish, ii. 39; surprising manner in which the monkeys draw crabs from the water; 378; found in fresh and salt water, and upon land; description; its intestines have many convolutions: land-crabs of various kinds; some healthful and nourishing; others poisonous or malignant to a great degree, places where found, iv. 12.

Crab (violet) of the Caribbee islands, described; most noted, both for shape and delicacy of its flesh; their food; their nippers the principal instruments for seizing and cutting their food; catch such hold, that the limb is lost sooner than the grasp; thus it gets off, leaving its claw fastened upon the enemy; the claw performs its duty, and keeps a minute fastened upon the finger, while the crab makes off; it loses no great matter by a leg or an arm; as they grow again, the animal becomes perfect as before; live in a kind of orderly society in retreats in the mountains; fatiguing and amazing march from the mountains to the sea-shore, to deposit the spawn, from which soon after millions of little crabs are seen slowly travelling up the mountains; wait the benefit of sea-water for their delivery; change their shells, at which period they become quite naked, and almost without motion for six days, when they become so fat as to be delicious food; have under their stomachs four white stones, which gradually decrease, as the shell hardens, and when come to perfection are not to be found; season and manner in which they are caught; in Jamaica they are in great plenty, and considered as one of the greatest delicacies; many of this kind found poisonous, iv. 12 to 16.

Crab (soldier) a native of the West Indies; its description; seen every year descending from the mountains to the sea-shore, to deposit its spawn, and to provide itself with a new shell; contest between them for some well-looking favourite shell, for which they are rivals; strike with their claws; bite each other, till the weakest is obliged to yield and give up the object of dispute; when taken sends forth a feeble cry, endeavouring to seize the enemy with its nippers; not much esteemed for its flesh, iv. 17, 18.

Crane, bred familiarly in our marshes formerly; not now, and why, iii. 52; general characteristics and habits of birds of the crane-kind; their food and flesh; description of the crane; their nests are more simple than the sparrow's; Gesner says, its feathers, in his time, were set in gold, and worn as ornaments in caps; description of this bird from ancient writers, who have mixed imagination with history; whence have arisen the fables of supporting their aged parents, and fighting with pigmies; the crane a social bird, and seldom seen alone; usual method of flying or sitting, in flocks of fifty or sixty together; while part feed, the rest keep guard; subsists mostly upon vegetables; are known in every country of Europe, except our own; are birds of passage; seasons of their migrations, during which they do incredible damage, chiefly in the night; were formerly known, and held in great estimation here for the delicacy of their flesh; there was a penalty upon destroying their eggs; Plutarch says cranes were blinded, kept in coops, and fattened for the tables of the great in Rome; at present they are considered all over Europe as wretched eating; qualities of its flesh; the cold Artic region this bird's favourite abode; their note the loudest of all other birds; and often heard in the clouds when the bird itself is unseen; amazing heights to which they ascend when they fly; though unseen themselves, they have distinct vision of every object below; govern and direct their flight by their cries; extraordinary length and contortion of its windpipe; use made of their clangorous sound; they rise but heavily, are shy birds, and seldom let the fowler approach them; their depredations usually in the darkest nights, when they enter a field of corn, and trample it down, as if crossed over by a regiment of soldiers; corn their favourite food, scarce any other comes amiss to them; Redi's experiments to this purpose; a little falcon pursues, and often disables it; method used on such occasions by those fond of hawking; barbarous customs of breeding up the cranes to be thus baited; easily tamed; Albertus Magnus says, it has a particular affection for man; the female distinguished from the male, by not being bald behind; never lays above two eggs at a time; the young are soon fit to fly, and then the parents forsake them to shift for themselves; when unfledged, they run with such swiftness that a man cannot easily overtake them; Aldrovandus assures us one was

kept tame for above forty years ; the vulgar bear the crane a compassionate regard ; prejudices in its favour ; a heinous offence in some countries to kill a crane ; distinctions between the crane and the stork, 223 to 231.

Crane, the *Belearic*, from the coast of Africa, and the Cape de Verde islands, its description ; habits ; has been described by the name of the sea-peacock ; real Bulearic crane of Pliny ; foreign birds of the crane kind, described ; the jabirugacu ; the anhima ; the buffoon-bird or Numidian crane, described, iii. 233 to 236 ; place where the crane kind seem to have formed their general rendezvous, 246 ; the flamingo the most remarkable of all the kind, the tallest, bulkiest, and most beautiful, described, 247 ; small birds of the crane kind, 253.

Cræsus (king of Lydia) seated on his throne with all the barbarous pomp of Eastern splendour, asking Solon if he had ever beheld any thing so fine ? was answered, that after the beautiful plumage of the pheasant, he could be astonished at no other finery, iii. 121.

Cricetus, the *German rat*, by Mr. Buffon called the hamster, its description ; is the greatest pest in the countries where found, and every method made use of to destroy it ; its hole a curious object for contemplation ; shows a skill superior to the rest of the rat kind ; description of it ; their storehouses ; contain two bushels of good grain in each apartment ; means of finding out their retreats ; produce young twice or thrice a year, and bring five or six at a time ; their devastations produce a famine ; they destroy each other ; their fur very valuable, ii. 299 to 301.

Cricket, a ruminating insect, or seemingly so, ii. 39 ; difference from the grasshopper ; their voice ; food, iv. 216 ; never drink ; sound of drums and trumpets make them forsake their situation, 217.

Cricket (*mole*) described, thought to be amphibious, iv. 217 ; the number of their eggs ; a most detested insect by gardeners ; its devastations ; precautions of the female against the black-beetle ; their care and assiduity in the preservation of their young, 218.

Croches, in the head of the stag, ii. 98.

Crocodile, extraordinary combat between this animal and the tiger, ii. 172 ; the ichneumon discovers and destroys its eggs ; kills its young, and sometimes entering the mouth of the crocodile, when sleeping on the shore, effectually destroys it, ii. 241, 242 ; the eggs it lays in the sand often amount to three or four hundred, 243 ; the places where found, together with their dimensions ; description ; during an inundation, it sometimes enters the cottages of the natives, and seizes the first animal it meets with ; several examples of taking a man out of a canoe from his companions, notwithstanding all opposition and resistance ; can overturn a canoe with a single blow of its tail ; terrible even upon land ; its depredations ; combats between the crocodile and the tiger ; in what manner it seizes its prey ; there is no animal but man alone that can combat it with success ; how a negro ventures to attack this animal in its own element ; manner of taking it at Siam ; often managed like a horse ; a curb put into its mouth, and the rider directs it as he likes ; makes an object of savage pomp near the palaces of their monarchs ; manner of taking it along the rivers of Africa ; pools of water where bred, as we breed carp in our ponds ; in Egypt, and other long-peopled countries, this animal solitary and fearful ; in the river San Domingo they are most inoffensive, children play with them, and ride about on their backs ; beat them without receiving the smallest injury ; probable opinion, its musky substance amassed in glands under the legs and arms ; its flesh ; the eggs to the savages most delicate morsels ; all breed near fresh waters ; precautions in laying their eggs ; the female having introduced her young to their natural element, she and the male become their most formidable enemies ; their eggs eagerly sought after by every bird and beast of prey ; the Gallinazo (a species of the vulture) their greatest enemy ; the open-bellied crocodile, thought viviparous ; has a false belly like the opossum, for the young to creep out and in, as danger or necessity requires ; their age ; produced to fight at the amphitheatre at Rome, iv. 95 to 106.

Croppers, a kind of pigeons, iii. 184.

Crossbill, a bird of the sparrow kind, iii. 197.

Cross-fox, animal between the dog and fox, ii. 221. See *Isatis*.

Crown, in the head of a stag, ii. 98.

Crows fetch and carry with the docility of a spaniel, iii. 149; the *Carrion-crow* resembles the raven in appetites, laying, and manner of bringing up its young; the *Royston-crow*, 153.

Cruelty, teaching the arts of cruelty equivalent to committing them, iii. 121.

Crustaceous, animals of the lobster kind, iv. 6.

Cub, the fox is so called during the first year, ii. 215; born blind, like those of the dog, 216.

Cuckoo, fables invented of this bird now sufficiently refuted; where it resides in winter, or how provides for its supply during that season, still undiscovered; this bird somewhat less than a pigeon, shaped like a magpie, and of a greyish colour; is distinguished from all other by its round prominent nostrils; discovers itself in our country early in the spring, by its well known call; its note heard earlier or later as the season is more or less forward, and the weather inviting; from the cheerful voice of this bird the farmer instructed in the real advancement of the year; from this bird's note the husbandman may be taught when to sow his most useful seeds; history and nature of this bird still in great obscurity; its call an invitation to courtship, used only by the male, generally perched upon a dead tree, or bare bough, repeating his song, which he loses when the genial season is over; his note pleasant though uniform; the female makes no nest; repairs to the nest of some other bird, generally the water-wagtail or hedge-sparrow, and, after devouring the eggs of the owner, lays her's in their place; usually lays but one, and this the little foolish bird hatches with great assiduity, and when excluded fondly thinks the ill-looking changeling her own; to supply this voracious creature the credulous nurse toils with unwearied labour; not sensible she is feeding up an enemy to her race; the stomach of this bird is enormous, and reaches from the breast-bone to the vent; its food; naturally weak and fearful; the smaller birds consider the young cuckoo as an enemy; revenge the cause of their kind by repeated insults, and form a train of pursuers; the wry-neck in particular the most active in the chase; supposed, in winter, to lie hid in hollow trees, or to pass into warmer climates; story of a cuckoo found in a willow log in winter; probable opinion concerning its residence in winter; Brisson makes not less than twenty-eight sorts of this bird; and talks of one of Brasil, as making a horrible noise in the forests, iii. 170 to 173; follows a very different trade from what its nurse endeavoured to teach it; and, according to Pliny, in time destroys its instructor, 306 to 307.

Cuckoo-spit, or froth-worm, its description, iv. 220.

Cud, the hare, the rabbit, and the squirrel, placed by Pyerius among those that chew the cud; how far true is not determined, ii. 257.

Cuguacu apara, name in Brasil for the roe-buck, ii. 113.

Cumin-seed, formerly used in dressing a hare in true Roman taste, ii. 263.

Cur, the cur-fox, ii. 217.

Curlow, a small bird of the crane kind; its dimensions; places where found; manner of procuring its food; its habits; its nest, and number of eggs; a bird of passage; our country, during the summer season, becomes uninhabitable to them; season of courtship, iii. 253 to 258.

Currents of rivers well explained by the Italians, i. 118; side current; back current, 120; sometimes the current at bottom swifter than at top, and when; double current, 121; found to run in all directions; manner in which mariners judge of the setting and rapidity of the current; currents are generally found most violent under the equator; along the coast of Guinea, if a ship happens to overshoot the mouth of any river it is bound to, the currents prevents its return; a passage, with the current, gone in two days, with difficulty performed in six weeks against it; currents do not extend above twenty leagues from the coast; the currents at Sumatra extremely rapid, run from south to north; also strong currents between Madagascar and the Cape of Good Hope; on the western coasts of America, the current always runs from the south to the north; but the most remarkable are those continually flowing into the Mediterranean sea; between the North and the South Foreland, the current runs one way at top and the other way at bottom, i. 152 to 154.

Current of air, driven through a contracted space, grows more violent, i. 204.

Cusco, Garcilasso de la Vega asserts the air is so dry and so cold there, that flesh dries like wood without corrupting, i. 379.

Custom, the form of the face seems rather the result of custom, i. 359.

Cuttle-fish, its description; contrivance with which it is furnished by Nature, when under a difficulty of escaping, iv. 316.

Cybotus, a lofty mountain swallowed by an earthquake, i. 96.

Cynocephalus, the Magot of Buffon, the last of the ape kind; its description; is a native of Africa and the East, ii. 367.

Cyprinus, or the carp, iii. 403. See *Carp*.

D

Dam, in the rapacious kinds, leads her young forth for four months together, it is not so with those of the hare kind, ii. 259.

Dampier has added more to natural history than half the philosophers before him, iv. 28.

Damps, of various natures in mines; the fulminating sort, i. 51, 52.

Dance, hares taught to dance to music, ii. 260.

Dane, the tallest dog bred in England, ii. 192 to 194.

Danube has seven openings into the Euxine Sea, i. 80; proceeds from the Alps, 86; its course; the Turks and Christians have fleets of men of war upon it, 123; it receives thirty lesser rivers, 127; the huso, or isinglass-fish, caught in great quantities in the river, iii. 388.

Dara, its inhabitants use ostriches as horses, iii. 68.

Darkness, surprising how far the eye accommodates itself to it, i. 317; remarkable instance of it in a gentleman, a major under Charles the First, 318.

Daubenton gives a complete history of a dwarf, i. 368.

Deaf men often found to see the force of those reasonings which they could not hear, understanding every word as it was spoken, i. 326; one born deaf, must necessarily be dumb; instances of two young men, who, born deaf, were restored to hearing, 325; a person born deaf, by time and pains taught to write, read, speak, and by the motion of the lips to understand what is said; instances of it, 326.

Deafness one of the most common disorders in old age; way to know this defect either internal or external, i. 324.

Death, a young man born deaf and dumb, knew nothing of death, and never thought of it till the age of twenty-four, when he began to speak of a sudden, i. 326; a spectre, which frights us at a distance, but disappears when we come to approach it, 343; uncertainty of the signs of death, 344.

Deer, annually shedding horns, and their permanence in the sheep, draws a distinct line between their kinds, ii. 56; the little Guinea-deer, the least of all cloven-footed quadrupeds, and most beautiful; its description, 81; the male in Guinea has horns, but the female is without; they abound in Java and Ceylon, 82; all of the deer-kind want the gall-bladder, 87; a downy substance, like velvet, upon the skin, covering the skull of a deer when the old horn is fallen off; their horns grow differently from those of sheep or cows; they are furrowed along the sides, and why, 89; the bran-deer, or the brown-deer, called by the ancients tragelaphus, found in the forests of Germany; the new continent of America produces animals of the deer-kind in sufficient plenty, 103.

Deer (Fallow.) no animals more nearly allied than the stag and fallow-deer, yet they never herd nor engender together, nor form a mixed breed; each form distinct families, and retain an unalterable aversion; the fallow-deer rarely wild in the forests; are in general bred in parks, and their flesh is preferred to that of any other animal; a herd of them divides into two parties, and engages each other with great ardour and obstinacy; both desirous of gaining a favourite spot of the park for pasture, and of driving the vanquished into the more disagreeable parts; manner of their combats; are easily tamed; and browse closer than the stag; they seek the female at their second year; their strength, cunning, and courage inferior to those of the stag; a more delicate animal than the stag; we have in England two varieties of the fallow-deer, one brought from Bengal, the other from

Norway ; flesh of the French fallow-deer has not the fatness or the flavour of that fed upon English pasture ; Spanish and Virginia fallow-deer larger and stronger than ours ; deer without horns, their description, ii. 104 to 108.

Deer (Rein,) the most extraordinary and most useful ; native of the icy regions of the North ; it answers the purposes of a horse ; attempts made to accustom it to a more southern climate, in a few months it declines and dies ; answers the purpose of a cow in giving milk, and of the sheep in furnishing warm clothing to the people of Lapland and Greenland ; description of the rein-deer ; its rutting-time, and that of shedding its horns ; difference between this deer and the stag ; it is not known to the natives of Siberia ; Americans call it caribou ; herdsmen of Lapland known to possess a thousand rein-deer in a single herd ; it subsists upon moss, and makes the riches of the people of Lapland ; gnats and gadflies very formidable to this deer in Lapland ; female brings forth in May ; its milk thinner than that of the cow ; sweeter and more nourishing ; is of two kinds in Lapland ; it draws sledges ; can go about thirty miles without halting, and without dangerous effort ; generally castrated by the Laplanders ; one male left for six females ; begin to breed when two years old ; go with young eight months, and bring two at a time ; fondness of the dam remarkable ; live but fifteen or sixteen years ; manner in which the Laplanders kill them ; scarce any part of this animal not converted to peculiar uses ; the Laplanders find their necessities supplied from the rein-deer alone ; in what manner ; diseases of this animal ; the blood of the rein-deer preserved in small casks, for sauce with the marrow in spring ; the horns converted into glue ; the sinews make the strongest sewing-thread ; the tongues a great delicacy ; the intestines, washed like our tripe, in high esteem among the Laplanders ; bears make depredations upon the rein-deer ; glutton its most dangerous and successful persecutor ; only method of escape from this creature, ii. 117 to 129 ; in what manner the rein-deer is killed by it, 253 ; the wolf never attacks a rein-deer that is haltered in Lapland, and why, 211.

Deformity, children often inherit even the accidental deformities of their parents ; instances of it ; accidental deformities become natural ; by assiduity continued and increased, through successive generations, i. 360 ; all those changes the African, the Asiatic, or the American, undergo in their colour, are accidental deformities probably to be removed, 362.

Demoiselle, name given by the French to the Numidian bird, iii. 236.

Depona, a large serpent, native of Mexico, iv. 154.

Derbent, pastures in these plains excellent for rearing horses, ii. 16.

Derbyshire, description of the nest of an eagle found in the peak of Derbyshire, iii. 84.

Derham, by a microscope, discovered in the eye of a mole, the parts known in other animals, ii. 305.

Desman, one of the three distinctions of the musk-rat ; a native of Lapland, ii. 298.

Devil, the Swedish Laplanders consult him, i. 347.

Devil (Sea) or fishing-frog described, iii. 389.

Dew compensates the want of showers in Egypt, i. 206.

Diablelet, a mountain of France suddenly fallen down ; its ruins covered an extent of a large square, i. 94.

Dictionaries of Arts and Sciences, a fault that has infected most of them, i. 397.

Diet of a thin sparing kind remarkable among quadrupeds, as well as the human species, to produce hair, ii. 229.

Digester, an instrument ; meat and bones put into it, dissolved into a jelly in six or eight minutes, i. 178.

Digestion, these organs in birds are in a manner reversed, iii. 43 ; is not perfect in all birds that live upon mice, lizards, or such like food, 110 ; performed by some unknown principle in the stomach, acting in a manner different from all kinds of artificial maceration ; this animal power lodged in the maw of fishes, iii. 326, 327.

Diseases of the rein-deer ; the manner in which the Laplanders cure them, ii. 128.

Disorders, infectious, propagated by the effluvia from diseased bodies, i. 189.

most of these incidents to mankind, says Bacon, arise from the changes of the atmosphere, iii. 331; fishes have their disorders, 421.

Diver (the great northern), a bird of the smaller tribe of the penguin kind; the grey-speckled diver; the scarlet-throated diver, iii. 292.

Divers known to descend from twenty to thirty fathom, i. 169; of all those who have brought information from the bottom of the deep, Nicola Pesce the most celebrated; account of his performances by Kircher, 170; some known to continue three quarters of an hour under water without breathing; they usually die consumptive; manner of fishing for pearls, iv. 61.

Dodo, its description, iii. 75; among birds, as the sloth among quadrupeds, an unresisting animal, equally incapable of flight or defence; native of the Isle of France; the Dutch first discovered it, and called it the nauseous bird; travellers deem its flesh good and wholesome; it is easily taken; three or four dodos enough to dine a hundred men; whether the dodo be the same bird with that described under the name of the bird of Nazareth, remains uncertain, 76.

Doe, the female of the deer kind, ii. 106.

Dogs, always running with their noses to the ground, supposed of old the first that felt infection, i. 181; no other animal of the carnivorous kind will make a voluntary attack, but with the odds on their side, 403; the Arabian horses outrun them, ii. 9; in the dog kind the chief power lies in the under jaw, 146; in Syria, remarkable for the fine glossy length and softness of their hair, 153; in tropical climates, lose the delicacy of their scent, and why; the lion, tiger, panther, and ounce, all natural enemies to the dog, 179; dog kind not so solitary as those of the cat; their proper prey are animals unfitted for climbing; they can live for some time upon fruits and vegetables, 181; description of the dog; knows a beggar by his clothes, by his voice, or his gestures, and forbids his approach, 185; the dog most susceptible of change in its form, 188; all dogs are of one kind; which the original of all the rest, which the savage dog, whence such a variety of descendants, is no easy matter to determine; the shepherd's the primitive animal of his kind; those wild in America and Congo, as those of Siberia, Lapland, Iceland, of the Cape of Good Hope, of Madagascar, Madura, Calicut, and Malabar, resemble the shepherd's dog; those in Guinea, at the second or third generation, forget to bark; dogs of Albany, of Greece, of Denmark, and of Ireland, larger and stronger than any other; shepherd's dog, transported into temperate climates, and among people entirely civilized, from influence of climate and food alone, becomes a mastiff, a mastiff, or a hound, *Turkish dog*; *great Danish dog*; *great wolf dog*, or *Irish wolf dog*; the *little Danish dog*; their variety now in England much greater than in the reign of queen Elizabeth; Dr. Caius divides the whole race into three kinds; the generous, the farm-kind, the mongrel, 187 to 192; three shepherd's dogs reckoned a match for a bear, and four for a lion; three of them overcame a lion in the time of king James the First; the famous poet, Lord Surry, the first who taught dogs to set; the *pug dog*; the *English bull dog*; the *lion dog*, originally from Malta; its description; the *Molosian dogs* of the ancients, according to Mr. Buffon; *Epirotic dogs*, mentioned by Pliny; *Indian dogs*, mentioned by Elian; his description of a combat between a dog and a lion; the bravest of the kind; the nobler kinds of dogs, of which such beautiful ancient descriptions, now utterly unknown, 194 to 197; puppies' eyes not open till ten or twelve days old; dog's teeth amount to forty-two; this animal capable of reproducing at the age of twelve months; goes nine weeks with young; and lives about twelve years; other particulars concerning dogs; many kinds of birds the dogs will not touch; dogs and vultures living wild about Grand Cairo, in Egypt, continue together in an amicable manner, and are known to bring up their young in the same nest; dogs bear hunger for a long time; a bitch forgotten in a country-house, lived forty days without any other sustenance than the wool of a quilt she had torn in pieces, 200 to 202; the wild hunt in packs; unknown, such as he was before the protection of man; some from a domestic state have turned savage, and partaken of the disposition of the wolf, and attack the most formidable animals of the forest; are easily tamed, and quickly become familiar and submissive, 186, 187; experiments to prove the wolf and the fox not of the same nature with the dog, but of a nature perfectly distinct; animals in this country bred between a dog and a fox; a dog

Drugs, in the tropical climates lose their virtue, and become verminous, i. 182.

Drum, among the Swedish Laplanders every family has one for consulting the devil, i. 347; hares taught to beat the drum, ii. 260.

Dryness, a great degree of it produced by heat, preserves from corruption, i. 379.

Duck, when ducks are caught, the men keep a piece of turf burning near their mouths, and breathe upon it, lest the fowl smelling them should escape, iii. 41; of the numerous tribes of the duck kind no more than five breed here, 53; Plutarch assures us Cato kept his family in health, feeding them with duck whenever they threatened to be out of order, 299; its eggs often laid under a hen; seems a heedless inattentive mother; of the tame duck, ten different sorts; and of the wild, Brisson reckons above twenty; the most obvious distinction between the wild and tame ducks; difference between wild ducks among each other; sea and pond ducks; names of the most common birds of the duck kind, among ourselves, and of the most noted of the foreign tribe; the American wood-duck; their habits, nests, and number of eggs; are, in general, birds of passage; their flesh; the ducks flying in the air often lured down from their heights by the loud voice of the mallard from below; what part of the lake they generally choose; what can employ them all day not easy to guess; manner of making and managing a decoy to take them; general season for catching them in decoys from the end of October till February; taking them earlier prohibited by an act of George the Second, imposing a penalty of five shillings for every bird destroyed at any other season; amazing quantity of ducks sent to supply the markets of London; manner of taking them frequently practised in China, 307 to 314.

Dung, some animals void it when pursued; this arises rather from fear than a desire of defence, ii. 54.

Dunlin, a small bird of the crane kind, iii. 253.

Dutch, sollicitous about the preservation of the stork, in every part of their republic, iii. 232.

Dwarf, in England, as late as the times of King James the First, the court was furnished with one; and he was called Little Jeffrey; Peter of Russia celebrated a marriage of dwarfs, i. 366, 367; they seem to have faculties resembling those of children; history of a dwarf accurately related by Mr. Daubenton, 368.

Dwina, a river; its course and source, i. 123.

E

Eagle-kind, the flap of an eagle's wing known to lay a man dead in an instant, iii. 39; it flies at the bustard or the pheasant, 78; distinctive marks from the other kinds of carnivorous birds; the golden eagle is the largest and noblest of all those birds designated by the name of eagle; its description; its sight and sense of swelling very acute; breed among the loftiest cliffs, and choose those places most remote from man; considered among birds as the lion among quadrupeds; strong similitude to each other; great patience, and much art, required to tame an eagle; though taken young, and brought under by long assiduity, yet it is a dangerous domestic, and often turns its force against its master; sometimes has an attachment for its feeder; it is then serviceable, and will provide for his pleasure and support; flies the highest of all birds, and from thence has by the ancients been called the bird of heaven; it has also the quickest eye; but its sense of smelling is far inferior to that of the vulture; it never pursues, but in sight; finds difficulty in rising when down; carries away geese, cranes, hares, lambs, and kids, and often destroys fawns and calves, to drink their blood, and carries a part of their flesh to its retreats; infants when left unattended, have been destroyed by these rapacious creatures; the eagle is peculiarly formidable when bringing up its young; a poor man got a comfortable subsistence for his family, during a summer of famine, out of an eagle's nest, by robbing the eaglets of food; eagles killed a peasant who had robbed their nests; there is a law in the Orkney Islands which entitles any person that kills an eagle to a hen out of every house in the parish in which the plunderer is killed; the nest of the eagle is usually built in the most inaccessible cliff of the rock; description of one found in the Peak of Derbyshire; it hatches its eggs for

Earth-worm of America often a yard in length, and as thick as a walking-cane, 233; multiplied by being cut in pieces, 243; its description, iv. 310. See *Worms*.
Earwig, its habits; reproaches groundless about this animal; its food, iv. 219; general characteristics of the kind; lives in its winged state a few days; dies to all appearance consumptive, 220.

East Indies, favourable months of embarking for them, i. 199.

Echineis, the sucking-fish, its description, iii. 403.

Echini, or urchin, a multivalve shell fish, iv. 65. See *Urchins*.

Echo, no art can make an echo, i. 324.

Edgar, King of England, the first who attempted to rid this kingdom of wolves, and in what manner, ii. 210.

Edward I. issued his mandate to Peter Corbet to superintend and assist in the destruction of wolves, ii. 210.

Edward III. made it felony to steal a hawk, iii. 97.

Edward IV. his act concerning swans, iii. 303.

Eel described, iii. 402.

Effluvia from diseased bodies propagate disorders called infectious, i. 189.

Egg, all birds, most fishes, and many of the insect tribes, brought forth from eggs; warmth of the sun, or of a stove, efficacious in bringing the animal in the egg to perfection; its description; history of the chicken in the egg to its complete formation, i. 245 to 249; quadrupeds brought forth from the egg, above two hundred at a time, 414; the ichneumon discovers and destroys the eggs of the crocodile, ii. 241; the crocodile lays in the sand, at a time three or four hundred, 243; some eggs only addled by incubation, iii. 47; such birds as undisturbed lay but two or three eggs, when their eggs are stolen, lay ten or twelve; a common hen, moderately fed, lays above one hundred from the beginning of spring to the latter end of autumn, 51; some of the ostrich's weigh above fifteen pounds, 65; Galen thought the eggs of hens and pheasants good to be eaten; those of geese and ostriches are the worst of all, 68; and those hatched in the hot sand, where laid, 70; taking the eggs of a hawk, even in a person's own ground, punished with imprisonment for a year and a day, and a fine at the king's pleasure, in the reign of Edward III. 97; inhabitants of Norway prepare from the eggs of the porpoise a kind of caviar, or delicate sauce, and good when eaten with bread, 359; manner in which the eggs of fishes are impregnated wholly unknown, 416; doubts whether fish come from the egg completely formed, 417; those of the turtle hatched by the sun, iv. 31.

Eggs (Sea) name given in our cabinets to a multivalve shell-fish called echini, or urchins, by naturalists, iv. 65; those of the sea-urchin a great delicacy, 67; opening the body of a queen-bee there appeared in it five thousand eggs, 264.

Eglantine, found at a well dug at Marly, i. 39.

Egypt has south winds so hot during summer, that respiration is almost stopped by them; they are charged with such quantities of sand, that they darken the air, as with a cloud; continuing for any length of time, they produce epidemic diseases; it rains very seldom in that country; but the want of showers is compensated by the copiousness of their dews, i. 205, 206; the catacombs, 381; a mummy, not long since dug up in France shews the art of embalming was more completely understood in the western world than in Egypt itself, 383, 384; the Tintinians and Egyptians have now the fame of rearing the finest horses, both for size and beauty, ii. 13; the ichneumon used in this kingdom for the same purposes that cats are in Europe, 241.

Egyptian. See *Embalming*. See *Ibis*.

Eider duck, iii. 308; remarkable for the warmth of its nest, 309.

Elaboratory, bowels of ruminating animals considered as an elaboratory, with vessels in it, ii. 38; the chemical apparatus for hatching chickens, iii. 123.

Elasticity of the air, i. 173.

Elder-berries hurtful to cocks, iii. 124.

Elephant, not afraid singly to make opposition to the lion, ii. 160; not less remarkable for its size than its docility; all historians concur in giving it the character of the most sagacious animal next to man; its height from seven to fifteen feet; impossible to give an idea of this animal's figure by description,

dominion of man; duration of pregnancy in the female still a secret; what Aristotle and others say concerning this and their young is doubtful; method of taking them wild in the woods; negroes of Africa who hunt this animal for its flesh, take it in pit-falls; its attachment to the person who attends it; it comprehends several of the signs made to it; distinguishes the tone of command from that of anger or approbation, and acts accordingly; executing orders with prudence, eagerly, yet without precipitation; is taught to kneel down to receive its rider, usually mounted upon its neck; caresses those it knows; salutes such as ordered to distinguish, and helps to take up part of its load; takes a pleasure in the finery of its trappings; draws chariot's, cannon, or shipping, with strength, perseverance, and satisfaction, provided it be not corrected without a cause, and that its master be pleased with its exertions; in what manner the conductor guides it; frequently takes such an affection to its keeper as to obey no other; has been known to die of grief for killing its conductor in a fit of madness; surprising instance of moderation in its fury; a word sufficient to put it in motion, 399 to 403; a century or two ago, the Indian generals made great dependence upon the number and the expertness of their elephants; of late they are little used, except for drawing cannon, and transporting provisions; still they are used in war in Siam, in Cochlin-China, in Tonquin, and Pegu; in what manner armed and led to battle; effects of its fury in the field; those placed upon its back, in a square tower, combat as from an eminence, and sling down their weapons with double force; nothing more dreadful or more irresistible than such moving machines to men unacquainted with the modern arts of war; Romans quickly learned the art of opening their ranks to admit the elephant, and separating it from assistance, compelled its conductors to soothe the animal's fury, and to submit; sometimes, instead of obeying, turned upon those it was employed to assist; one elephant is known to consume as much as forty men in a day; they are now chiefly employed in carrying or drawing burdens throughout the Peninsula of India; it can with ease draw more than six horses can remove; it carries upon its back three or four thousand weight, and upon its tusks it can support near a thousand; when pushed, it moves as swiftly as a horse at full gallop; it travels fifty or sixty miles a day, and, hard pressed, almost double that quantity; heard trotting on at a great distance; its track is deeply impressed on the ground, and from fifteen to eighteen inches in diameter; used in India as executioners, and with what dexterity they perform the horrid task; sometimes they impale the prisoner on their enormous tusks; two surprising instances how sensible it is of neglect; the keeper despising its endeavours when launching a ship, the animal redoubled its efforts, fractured its skull, and died upon the spot; revenge one of them took upon a tailor who pricked its trunk with a needle in Delhi; is mindful of benefits; instance of it; at the Cape of Good Hope they are hunted for the sake of their teeth; in what manner; an account of an unhappy huntsman; teeth of the elephant found in a fossil state; two grinding teeth, and part of the tusk of an elephant, discovered at the depth of forty-two yards in a lead-mine in Flintshire; tusks of the elephants that come from Africa, seldom exceed two hundred and fifty pounds; it is defeated by the rhinoceros; tusks of the mammoth, often found fossil in Siberia, generally supposed to belong to the elephant, 404, to 407.

Elephantiasis, or the Arabian leprosy, a disease to which man and the elephant are equally subject; in what manner the Indians endeavour to preserve the elephant from it, ii. 398.

Elizabeth (Queen), her injunction upon fasting; in the author's opinion very unwise, i. 301; in her times, the whole kingdom could not supply two thousand horses to form the cavalry, ii. 21.

Ellis, his principal experiment upon coralline substances; he put it past doubt, that corals and sponges were entirely the work of animals of the reptile or polypus kind, iv. 325.

Elk, its size equal to that of the elephant; is an animal rather of the buck than the stag kind; known in America by the name of the moose-deer; is sometimes taken in the German and Russian forests, but extremely common in North America; its horns fortuitously dug up in many parts of Ireland, measuring ten feet

has no vision, the defect is corrected by having the organ double; easy experiment to be conceived of it, 312; objects at a distance rarely equal in both eyes; the best eye sees objects largest; infants having their eyes less, must see objects smaller in proportion; when we look at an object extremely brilliant, vision becomes indistinct, and why; how far the eye can accommodate itself to darkness, 317; remarkable instance of it in a major under King Charles the First, 318; whence have arisen the small eyes of the Tartars and Chinese, 360; Eastern poets compare the eyes of their mistresses to those of the gazelle; the Greeks resemble the eyes of a beautiful woman to those of a cow, ii. 76; of all animals, natives of this climate, none have an eye so beautiful as the stag, 93; that of the wolf opens slantingly upwards in the same direction with the nose, 203; of the fox placed obliquely, like those of the wolf, 213; of the civet shine in the night, 251; those of the hare placed backwards, to see behind it as it runs, and these are never wholly closed, 255; peculiar advantages of the smallness of the eye in the mole, 306; description of the eyes of birds of the owl kind; in the eyes of all animals, a complete provision to shut out too much light, or to admit a sufficiency, by contraction and dilation of the pupil, iii. 103; those of the great Greenland whale not larger than those of an ox, 312; of the snail on the points of its largest horns, iv. 43; peculiarities in the eyes of the chameleon, 115; eyes of the butterfly have not all the same form; the outward coat has a lustre displaying the various colours of the rainbow; examined a little closely, it will be found to have the appearance of a multiplying-glass, 243; the beetle, in its worm-state, has no eyes, 293.

Eye-brows, joining in the middle, considered a peculiar grace by Tibullus, and by the Persians, i. 271; Le Brun's directions regarding the passions, place the principal expression in them; such as have them most at command are the best actors, 276; the Talapoins of Siam shave the eye-brows of the children committed to their care, 282.

Eye-lashes, man and apes only have them upon the upper and lower lids, all other animals want them on the lower lid, i. 276.

Eye-lids, in birds and amphibious quadrupeds, the lower lid alone has motion; fishes and insects have no eye-lids, i. 276.

F.

Face, its form, the result of custom, i. 359. See *Beauty*, i. 374.

Falcon-gentle, a kind of hawk; it pursues the gazelle, ii. 83; many people admire its flesh, and dress it for eating, says Bellonius, iii. 80; method of training up this bird; falconry, much disused among us, was a principal amusement of our ancestors; among the Welsh, the king's falconer, the fourth officer of the state, was forbid to take more than three draughts of beer from his horn, lest he should neglect his duty; the falcon-gentle and the peregrine much less than the gyr-falcon, which exceeds all others in largeness; description of the gyr-falcon; a courageous and fierce bird, not fearing the eagle; it chiefly flies at the stork, the heron, and the crane; is chiefly found in the northern regions, but loses neither strength nor courage when brought into the milder climates; the falcon-gentle moults in March or sooner; the peregrine does not moult till August; the common falcon is of such spirit, that, like a conqueror of a country, he keeps all in awe and subjection to his prowess; young falcons, though depressed by captivity, will, when brought out, fly at barnacles and wild geese; the falcon's pursuit of the heron, kite, or woodlark, the most delightful sport; names of the falcon in use here and in other countries, 97 to 104.

Falconers, by means of the great owl catch the kite for the purposes of training the falcon, and how, iii. 113.

Fallopium, the two tubular vessels perceived by him, i. 239.

Famine supported by carnivorous animals for several weeks together, i. 406.

Fat of the shamois, its medicinal virtue; fat of animals found efficacious in some disorders, ii. 74; of the manati, exposed to the sun, has a fine smell and taste, and exceeds the fat of any sea-animal; the heat of the sun will not spoil it, nor make it rancid; several other qualities of this fat, ii. 355.

Father-lasher, description of this fish, iii. 400.

Fawn, name of the buck and the doe the first year, ii. 106.

Feathers of birds described, iii. 38; of the ostrich almost as soft as down, 62; different uses made of goose-feathers, 305, 306.

Feather-beds utterly unknown in countries bordering on the Levant, and all Asia; ancients did not use feather-beds; Pliny speaks of bolsters of feathers for their heads; feathers make a considerable article of commerce; different qualities; best method of curing them; old feathers more valuable than new, iii. 305, 306.

Fecundity of the rabbit greater than the hare, ii. 264.

Feeling, deprived of feeling, our eyes would misrepresent the situation and the number of all things around us, i. 310; blind men have their senses finer than others, and why; the grossest and most useful of the senses; no total deprivation of it but with life; those parts most exercised in it acquire the greatest accuracy; the fingers, by habit, greater in the art than others, not from their having more nerves; fishes having no organs for feeling must be the most stupid of all animals; feeling, the guardian, the judge, and the examiner of all the senses, is never found to deceive, 331, 332.

Ferret has eyes of a red colour, i. 275; not found at present here but in the domestic state; its description; a native of the torrid zone; naturally such an enemy of the rabbit that a young ferret, although unacquainted with the kind, will fiercely attack and bite even a dead one; use of ferrets in warrens to enter the holes muzzled, and drive the rabbits into the nets at the mouth; to bring the ferret from his hole, straw and other substances burnt at the mouth; the female less than the male, whom she seeks with great ardour, and often dies without being admitted; they sleep almost continually, and the instant they awake seem eager for food; are usually fed with bread and milk; breed twice a year; some devour their young as soon as brought forth, and then become fit for the male again; they litter usually from five to six young, and these consist of more females than males; its scent foetid; its nature voracious; has attacked and killed children in the cradle; is easily irritated, and then smells more offensively; its bite difficult of cure; has eight grinding-teeth; to the ferret kind may be added an animal called by Mr. Buffon, the yansire, ii. 231 to 233; comes originally from Africa, 267.

Fever, opinion that the lion is in a continual fever, ii. 159.

Fumet, name of the excrement of the stag, ii. 98.

Fibres, muscular, compose the stomachs of insects, ii. 39.

Fieldfare, bird of the sparrow kind, iii. 186.

Fielding. See *Smile*.

Figure, little known exactly of the proportion of the human figure, i. 288; different opinions concerning it, 289; whence proceed the variations in the human figure, 360; the oldest measure of the human figure in the monument of Cheops, in the first pyramid of Egypt, 374.

Finder, a dog of the generous kind, ii. 192.

Fins, different purposes they answer in fishes, iii. 320 to 322; those of the whale; their use, 341, 342, 344.

Fin-fish, iii. 341; its food, 345.

Fingers, by habit, and not from a greater number of nerves, become exacter in the art of feeling than any other part even where sensation is more delicate and fine, i. 331.

Fire, perpetual in the kingdom of Persia, i. 55; advantages arising from the subterranean fires, 76; put out by the sun shining upon it, and why, 193; fleeting balls of fire, 217; great globe of fire seen at Bononia in Italy, not less than a mile long, and half a mile broad, 219, 220; lighted to preserve herds and flocks from animals of the cat kind, ii. 158.

Fireflare, the dread of the boldest and most experienced fishermen; Pliny; Ælian, and Oppian, supply the weapon of this fish with a venom affecting even inanimate creation; reasons to doubt of it, iii. 375, 376.

Fishes, petrified, found in the mountains of Castravan, i. 32; fish in abundance found in a new formed island; those who eat of them died shortly after, 77;

cannot live in water whence the air is exhausted, 183; showers of fishes raised in the air by tempests, 224; most of them produced from the eggs, 245; have no eye-lids at all, 276; nor any neck, 285; are allured by music, 322; having no organs for feeling, must be stupid, 331; a ruminating sort, ii. 39; opinions that all fish are naturally of the salt element, and have mounted up into fresh water by accidental migration; some swim up rivers to deposit their spawn, of which the size is enormous, and the shoals endless; all keep to the sea, and would expire in fresh water; the number to which names are given, and of the figure of which something is known, according to Linnæus, are above four hundred; their pursuits, migrations, societies, antipathies, pleasures, times of gestation, manner of bringing forth, are all hidden in the turbulent element that protect them; the history of fishes can have little in it entertaining; for instead of studying their nature, pains have been taken to increase their catalogues; that shape granted to most fishes is imitated in such vessels as are designed to sail with the greatest swiftness; any large fish overtakes a ship in full sail with great ease; takes voyages of a thousand leagues in a season; the shark one of the swiftest swimmers; the chief instruments in the motion of a fish are the fins; in some they are more numerous than in others; it is not always the fish with the greatest number of fins that has the swiftest motion; how the fins assist the fish in rising or sinking, in turning or leaping out of the water; all this explained by the experiment of a carp put into a large vessel; all fishes covered with a slimy glutinous matter that defends their bodies from the immediate contact of the surrounding fluid; they fall behind terrestrial animals in their sensations; their sense of touching and smelling; their sense of tasting; hearing is found still more imperfect, if found at all; Mr. Gouan's experiment to this purpose; from it is learned they are as deaf as mute; their sense of seeing; their brain; a ceaseless desire of food gives the ruling impulse to all their motions; their rapacity insatiable; when out of water, and almost expiring, they greedily swallow the bait by which they were allured to destruction; the maw placed next the mouth, and though possessed of no sensible heat, is endued with a faculty of digestion, contrary to the system, that the heat of the stomach is alone sufficient for digestion; though for ever prowling, can suffer want of food very long; instances of it; life of a fish but one scene of hostility, violence, and evasion; the causes of animal migration; all stand in need of air for support; those of the whale kind come to the surface of the sea every two or three minutes to breathe fresh air; experiment of a carp in a large vase of water, placed under an air-pump; general method of explaining respiration in fishes; the description and uses of their air-bladder; full play of the gills prevented, or the bony covers kept from moving, the animal would fall into convulsions, and die, iii. 319 to 330; some fishes have no air-bladder; can live but a few minutes without air; nothing more difficult to account for than the manner of getting this supply; no part of the account of the use of the air-bladder well supported; Bacon's observations upon their growth and age; two methods for determining the age of fishes, more ingenious than certain; a carp found to be a hundred years old; the discovery confirmed by authors; longevity of these animals, nothing compared to their fecundity; some multiply by millions; some bring forth their young alive; and some produce eggs; the former rather the least fruitful; the viviparous blenny brings forth two or three hundred at a time, all alive, and playing round the parent; the cod spawns in one season above nine millions of eggs, the flounder above one million, and the mackerel above five hundred thousand; different seasons for depositing spawn; some fishes have the tenderness of birds or quadrupeds for their young; their copulation as yet a doubt; the flesh of fishes; question to the learned concerning the flesh of fishes; cetaceous fishes, 331 to 336; cartilaginous fishes, 360; sucking-fish sticks to the shark; called the shark's pilot, and why, 368; all fish more delicate about a baited hook than their ordinary food, 371; best bait for all is fresh herring cut in pieces of a proper size; experience shews, the larger fish take a living small one upon the hook sooner than any other bait, 374; more than those of the ray kind possessed of the numbing quality; Condamine informs us of a fish with the powers of the torpedo, and resembling a lamprey: lamprey of the English Severn the most delicate fish whatever, 379, 380; *sun-fish* described, 389; *turp-fish*, 390; *pipe-fish*, 391; *galley-*

fish, 393; spinous fishes, 394; Mr. Gouan's system of spinous fishes, 398 to 404; use of it; all fish of the same kinds have the same number of bones; the small, lean, and with many fins, the most bony; vulgar expression, that fishes at some seasons are more bony than at others, scarce deserves contradiction; none imbibe the sea-saltness with their food, or in respiration; whence then do some fishes live there, and quickly expire in fresh water; some tribes live only in the sea; others only in fresh water; some part of the season in one, and a part in the other, as the salmon, the shad, the smelt, and the flounder; some fish, as the eel, descend the fresh water stream, to bring forth their young in the sea; in what season; long voyages undertaken by some tribes that constantly reside in the ocean, and may be called the fish of passage; the stated returns and regular progress of these fish of passage, the most extraordinary circumstances in the history of nature; the names of several migrating fishes; of all such, the herring and pilchard take the most adventurous voyages; places where found in abundance, 405 to 410; in the islands of the Indian Ocean, an over-quantity, in shoals, on the swamps, dried up by the sun; the putrefaction renders the country unhealthful; amazing propagation along our coasts and rivers not proportionate to the quantities among the islands of the Indian Ocean; places where the spawn is deposited; doubts whether most fish come from the egg completely formed; manner in which the eggs of fishes are impregnated wholly unknown; the eel and the blenny bring forth their young alive; growth of fishes; instances in the growth of the carp and mackerel; all live upon each other, in some state of their existence; of those in the ocean of the spinous kinds, the dorado the most voracious; flying fish chiefly sought by the dorado; their warfare; opinion that all fishes are natives of the sea, founded upon their superior fecundity of breeding twenty to one; certainly fresh-water fishes abate of their courage and rapacity; greediness of the sea-fish to devour the bait prodigious compared with the manner it is taken in fresh-water; difference of bait with which they are caught; some fishes rendered so torpid in the northern rivers as to be frozen up in the masses of ice, and continue there several months, seemingly without life or sensation, waiting the approach of a warmer sun, to invite them to life and liberty; each species of fish infested with worms of different kinds; most vivacious animals; often live upon substances poisonous to the more perfect classes of animated nature; numbers of fishes making poisonous wounds scarcely to be doubted; some fishes being poisonous is notorious; the cause inscrutable; Dr. Grainger, after residing many years at St. Christopher's, affirms, that of fish caught at one end of the island, some were good and wholesome, while others of the same kind, taken at a different end, were dangerous, and commonly fatal; the Philosophical Transactions give an account of poisonous qualities of fish at New Providence; all kinds, at different times, alike dangerous, the same species this day serving as nourishment, the next found fatal; speculations and conjectures to which these poisonous qualities have given rise, 414 to 423.

File-fish, most wonderful of the shelly tribe, iv. 67. See *Pholudes*.

Fishery of pearls, several; chiefly carried on in the Persian Gulph, iv. 63; the people destined for the pearl-fisheries; they die consumptive; in what manner they fish for pearls, 64, 65.

Fishing-frog, from its deformity, called the *sea-devil*; conceit that this fish uses its two long heads or filaments for fishing; Rondeletius says, that the bowels taken out, the body appears transparent; and with a lighted candle in it has a formidable appearance; fishermen have a great regard for this ugly fish, as an enemy to the dog-fish; when taken they set it at liberty, iii. 389, 390.

Fissures, perpendicular, found in every field and every quarry; their causes, i. 42.

Fistularia, description of this fish, iii. 403.

Flame will burn under water; none found continuing to burn without air, i. 192.

Flamingo, the most remarkable of the crane kind, the tallest, bulkiest, and most beautiful; its description; chiefly found in America; once known on all the coasts of Europe; its beauty and the peculiar delicacy of its flesh have been such temptations to destroy or take it, that it has long since deserted the shores frequented by men; in deserted regions, the flamingos lives in a state of society, and under a better polity than others of the feathered creation; delicacy of its flesh; when the first Europeans in America killed one, the rest regarded the fall in fixed astonishment;

thus the fowler le-
 the scarcest and sh-
 points one as a wa-
 pet; Negroes fond
 protection from ex-
 treatment from the
 quently taken with
 to themselves in ca-
 them, says Labat,
 dred flamingo's to
 bird; its flesh; the
 a burning coal; the
tococo, and why; the
 when young; they
 drink sea-water; by
 in a short time; sa-
 times serves the E-

elled the flock before any began to escape; it is now one of
 best birds in the world; places it chiefly inhabits; always ap-
 ich, who gives notice of danger with a voice shrill as a trum-
 of their company, and think their society a gift of heaven, and
 ils; these killed are hidden in the long grass, to prevent ill
 blacks discovering the murder of their sacred birds; are fre-
 nets; refuse all nourishment when taken; pine and die, if left
 pitivity; its tongue is the most celebrated delicacy; a dish of
 a feast for an emperor; a Roman emperor had fifteen hun-
 dreds served up in a dish; their tongue larger than any other
 to move in rank like cranes; appear in flight of a bright red as
 panter of feeding very singular; savages of Canada call it
 time of breeding, and their nests; number of their eggs; colour
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Flounder, known to produce in one season above one million of eggs, iii. 333.

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Fœtus, the canal of communication through which the blood circulates in the fœtus, without going through the lungs, has been found open in some bodies that have been dissected, iv. 64.

Fongwang, natives of China give a fantastic description of this imaginary bird, iii. 134, 135.

Fontenelle, a celebrated writer, of a weak and delicate habit of body; the remarkable equality of his temper lengthened out his life to above a hundred; nothing could vex or make him uneasy, i. 339, 340.

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Forehead, narrow, liked by the Romans, i. 271.

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Frederic, emperor of Germany, wrote a treatise upon hawking, iii. 97.

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Fumes of hot iron, copper, or other metal, blown into the place where an animal is confined, instantly destroys it, i. 184.

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Galley-fish, its description; its legs adhesive; common in America, perpetually floating; no efforts made to hurt, can make it sink; never perceived to move on shore, so strongly adhering to whatever substances applied; the smallest quantity of slimy substance from its legs, burns the skin like hot oil; extremely common along all the coasts in the Gulf of Mexico; the shore covered with them, a fore-runner of a storm, iii. 393, 394.

Galley-worm, its difference from the scolopendra, iv. 192.

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Gannet, the soland goose, its description; subsists upon fish; places abounding with them; manner of preserving them and their eggs, in the island of St. Kilda; the inhabitants of that island principally subsist on them throughout the year, twenty-three thousand of this kind of young birds consumed annually there; a bird of passage; its migrations; never comes near the land; where seen, it announces the arrival of herrings; exceeds the cormorant in quickness of sight; method of taking its prey; manner of taking them at sea; number of their eggs; their young counted a great dainty, and sold very dear, iii. 277 to 280.

Garter-fish, the lipidopus, its description, iii. 403.

Gasterosteus, or the stickleback, description of this fish, iii. 401.

Gazelles, neither goat nor deer; partake of both natures; they form a distinct kind; their description; of all animals it has the most beautiful eye; Eastern poets compare the eyes of their mistresses to those of the gazelle; Buffon makes but twelve varieties; their names and descriptions; comparing them together, we find but slight distinctions; are inhabitants of the warmer climates; no animals but of the winged kind can overtake them; are pursued by falcons, and this hunting is a principal amusement among the great in the East; also hunted with the ounce; another way of taking them; keep in solitary and inaccessible places, ii. 75 to 84; the bubalus, more properly one of Africa, 117; the most usual prey for the lion, in deserts and forests, 159; the prey of the panther, 178; pursued by the jackal, makes towards houses and towns, 219.

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Genet, its odour more faint than civet; description of this animal; resembles the martin; more easily tamed; Bellonius has seen them at Constantinople tame as cats; glands open differently from others of its kind; called the cat of Constantinople; never found in mountains or dry places; its fur valuable; species not much diffused; countries where it is found; the most beautiful, cleanly, and industrious animal; keeps a house free from mice and rats by its smell, ii. 246, 247.

Genette, of the province of Andalusia the best, ii. 14.

Georgians, their description, i. 355.

Gerboa, has four feet, uses only the hinder in running or resting; the swiftest creature in the world; description; countries where found; lives upon vegetables, and burrows like rabbits, iii. 29, 30.

Gerenda, a serpent, to which the natives of Calicut and those of the Mozambique coast pay divine honours, iv. 152.

Germany, the meanest peasant kills a cow for his table, salts and hangs it up, and preserves it as a delicacy all the year round, ii. 41.

Gesner, minutely describes a variety of mouse-traps, ii. 293; places bats among birds, ii. 326.

Giant, in England, as late as King James I. the court had one, i. 366.

Giants, probability of the race affirmed, possibility of their existence denied; Gréw's opinion; Ferdinand Magellan, a Portuguese, first discovered a race of such people towards the extreme coast of South America; assent to the existence of this gigantic race of mankind; travellers confirm it; seen here, have the same defects of understanding as dwarfs; are heavy, phlegmatic, stupid, and inclined to sadness, i. 370 to 373.

Gibbon, the long-armed ape, its description, ii. 366, 367.

Gills, their free play prevented, the animal falls into convulsions and dies in a few moments, iii. 328.

Gilt-head, called dolphin by sailors; its description, iii. 399.

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Glands, furnish the fetid substances in animals of the weasel kind, ii. 228; of the genet open differently from others, 317; unctuous in birds to preserve their feathers, iii. 37; salivary in the gullet and crop of birds, 43.

Glass, a looking-glass held to the mouth of a person supposed to be dead an uncertain experiment for determining latent life, i. 344.

Glitters, little impressions so called in the heads of stags, ii. 98.

Globe of fire rising from the side of the mountain Pichinca; a great one seen at Bononia, in Italy, in the year 1676; past westward at the rate of a hundred and sixty miles in a minute: could not be less than a mile long, and half a mile broad, i. 219.

Globe of glass, filled with water, assumes successively all the colours of the rainbow, i. 221.

Gloucester, its corporation had an old custom annually to present the king with a lamprey pike, iii. 383.

Glow-worm, male and female of this species differ entirely from each other; how and in what manner the light sent forth by the glow-worm is produced, hitherto inexplicable; the light continues to grow paler, and at last is totally extinct, if the worm be kept for some time, iv. 297, 298.

Glue, made of the horns of the rein-deer, ii. 127; Mr. Jackson found out a method of making glue to answer the purposes of isinglass, iii. 388.

Glutton, the most dangerous and most successful persecutor of the rein-deer; its manner of killing that deer, ii. 129; belongs to the weasel kind; there is no precise description of it, some resembling it to a badger, some to a fox, others to a hyæna; one brought alive from Siberia was three feet long, and about a foot and a half high, 251; so called from its voracious appetite; countries where found; called carajou in North America; general description; Ray and others doubt of its existence; endued with great patience; watches for its prey for several days together; takes its prey by surprise, and in what manner; darts down from the branches of trees upon the elk or the rein-deer, sticks its claws between their shoulders, and remains there firm, eating their necks, and digging to the great blood vessels that lie in that part; amazing quantity one of these animals can eat at a time; that seen by Mr. Klein, without exercise or air, taken from its native climate, and enjoying but indifferent health, ate thirteen pounds of flesh every day, and was not satisfied; it continues eating and sleeping till its prey, bones and all, be devoured; prefers putrid flesh to that newly killed; it is so slow that any quadruped can escape it, except the beaver; pursues it upon land; but the beaver taking water, the glutton has no chance to succeed; called the vulture of the quadrupeds; in what manner it makes up by stratagem the defects of nature; the female goes with young four months, and brings forth two or three; the male and female equally resolute in defence of their young; is difficult to be skinned; does not fear man; is a solitary animal, and never in company but with its female; couples in the midst of winter; the flesh not fit to be eaten; the fur has the most beautiful lustre, and preferred to all, except the Siberian fox, or the sable, ii. 252 to 255.

Gnats, in Lapland, fill the air like clouds of dust; are chiefly enemies to the rein-deer; remedies used against them, ii. 121; proceed from a little worm; usually seen at the bottom of standing waters; curious manner in which their eggs are laid; in their egg state it resembles a buoy, fixed by an anchor; different

states of the insect ; in its last transformation divested of a second skin, in the next it resigns its eyes, its antennæ, and its tail, and seems to expire ; from the spoils of the amphibious animal appears a little winged insect, whose structure is an object of admiration ; description of this insect, and of its trunk, justly deemed one of Nature's master-pieces ; implement with which the gnat performs its work in summer ; places where it spends the winter ; the little brood so numerous that the water is tinged with the colour of the species ; some gnats oviparous, others viviparous, and come forth in a perfect form ; some are males, and unite with the female ; some are females requiring the male ; others are of neither sex, and produce young without copulation ; at the sixth generation the propagation stops, the gnat no longer reproduces its likeness, but requires the male to renew its fecundity ; produced in multitudes beyond expression in America ; and found of all sizes, from six inches long to a minuteness beyond the perception of the common eye ; native Indians, anointed with oil, sleep in cottages covered with thousands of gnats, and have not their slumbers interrupted by these cruel devourers, iv. 303 to 306.

Goat, its eyes are gray, i. 275 ; from Europe imported into South America, soon degenerates ; as it grows less it becomes more prolific ; imported to the African coast, it seems to improve, 411 ; goat and sheep propagate together, and may be considered as of one family ; the buck-goat produces with the ewe an animal in two or three generations returning to the sheep, and retaining no marks of its ancient progenitor, ii. 56 ; more fitted for a life of savage liberty than the sheep ; more lively, and more possessed of animal instinct ; it is not easily confined to its flock, but chooses its own pasture, and loves to stray from the rest ; delights in climbing precipices ; walks as securely on the ridge of a house as on the level ground ; is capricious and vagrant ; is not terrified at storms, or incommoded by rain ; immoderate cold affects it, and produces a vertigo, to which this animal is subject ; a hardy animal, and very easily sustained, for which reason chiefly the property of the poor ; its favourite food is the tops of boughs, or the tender bark of young trees ; proof of its being naturally the friend of man, and that it seldom resumes its forest wildness, when once reduced into the state of servitude in some places they bear twice a year ; in warmer climates generally bring forth three, four, and five, at once ; one buck sufficient for a hundred and fifty goats ; milk of goats medicinal ; not apt to curdle on the stomach ; in several parts of Ireland and the highlands of Scotland the goat the chief possession of the inhabitants ; flesh of the goat, properly prepared, ranked by some not inferior to venison ; is never so good and so sweet in our climate as mutton, no man can attend above fifty goats at a time ; flesh of the goat found to improve between the tropics ; remarkable varieties in this kind ; that of Natolia, by Mr. Buffon called *goat of Angora* ; its description ; the *Assyrian goat* of Gesner ; chiefly kept about Aleppo ; *little goat of Africa* ; the size of a kid, has hair as long as the ordinary breed ; *Juda goat*, not much larger than a hare ; common in Guinea, Angola, and the coast of Africa ; *blue goat*, at the Cape of Good Hope ; its description, ii. 65 to 69 ; boundaries between the goat and the deer kind difficult to fix, 75 ; *Bezoar goat*, the *pazan*, found in the mountains of Egypt, &c. 77 ; *African wild goat* of Grimmus, fourth anomalous of this kind ; its description, 81 ; goats eat four hundred and forty-nine plants, and reject a hundred and twenty-six, 133 ; in Syria, remarkable for their fine, glossy, long, soft hair, 153.

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Gobius, the gudgeon, description of this fish, iii. 399.

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Goose (Brent), most harmless, but for their young pursue dogs and men; use of its feathers in beds unknown in countries of the Levant and Asia; feathers a considerable article of commerce; different qualities of them; the best method of curing them, iii. 304 to 306.

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Gooseunder, a round-billed water-fowl, its description; feeds upon fish, iii. 296.

Gordian, the emperor, wrote a poem upon the halcyon, of which are no remains, iii. 316.

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Gouan, a learned Frenchman, his system deserves applause for more than its novelty; how followed in arranging the spinous classes of fishes, iii. 397.

Graaf his observations upon the progress and increase of animals in the womb, i. 250.

Grampus, fierce and desperate in defence of its young; remarkable instance, iii. 338; description and habits, 355.

Grasshopper, a ruminating insect, or seemingly so, ii. 39; differences between ours and the cicada of the ancients; great varieties of this animal in shape and colour; description of the little grasshopper that breeds plentifully in meadows, and continues chirping through the summer; the male of this tribe only vocal; how their fecundation is performed; the male or female never survive the winter; their eggs from first appearing, possessed of wings; how it gets rid of the outer skin; their food; places where they deposit their eggs, iv. 206 to 210.

Grave, the greatest care recommended not to commit those dearest to us to the grave before real signs of certain death be ascertained, i. 344.

Gretah, river in Yorkshire running under ground, and rising again, i. 131.

Grebe, description of this bird; residence and habits; perpetually diving, and very difficult to be shot; never seen on land; chiefly sought for the skin of its breast, and why; in breeding-time their breasts are bare, iii. 262, 263.

Greenfinch, bird of the sparrow kind, iii. 197.

Greenland, Crantz's account of the formation of ice-mountains in that country, i. 143, 144; *aurora borealis*, its appearance almost constant in winter; the inhabitants not entirely forsaken in the midst of their tedious night, this *aurora* affording them light for the purposes of existence, 222; they live mostly upon seals; their number daily diminishing, and why, ii. 353.

Greenlanders, described, i. 346; customary among them to turn Europeans into ridicule; a quiet, or a modest stranger, they deem almost as well bred as a Greenland, 348.

Grew, his opinion concerning dwarfs and giants, i. 370.

Greyhound kind, ii. 193; greyhound-fox, 217.

Gris, the petit gris, Mr. Buffon's name for the gray Virginian squirrel, ii. 269.

Grossbeak, bird of the sparrow kind, iii. 197.

Grotto of Antiparos, in the Archipelago, the most remarkable subterraneous cavern now known; description, i. 45.

Grotto del Cane, near Naples, situation and description; noxious effects, i. 54.

Grouse, chiefly found in heathy mountains and piny forests, iii. 138.

Growth of the child less every year, till the time of puberty, when it starts up of a sudden; growth of the mind in children corresponds with that of the body, and why, i. 263; of some young people ceases at fourteen or fifteen; of others continues till two or three and twenty, 273; of fishes irregular and tardy, iii. 417.

Guadalquivir, river in Spain buried in sand, i. 131.

Guanacoos, a kind of camel in America, iii. 13.

Guanches, ancient inhabitants of the island of Teneriffe; art of embalming still preserved among them, when the Spaniards conquered the island, i. 377, 378.

Guariba, Brazilian guariba, or varine, the largest of the monkey-kind in America, described, ii. 382.

Guayaquil river in South America, i. 88.

Gudgeon, fresh-water sort, as well as the anchovy, has no bladder, iii. 331; description of this fish, 399.

Guiba, animal resembling the gazelle; its description, ii. 81.

Guillemot, bird of the smaller tribe of the penguin kind, iii. 292.

Guinea, the natives kill numbers of hares at a time, and in what manner, ii. 263.

Guinea-ass, larger and more beautiful than the horse, ii. 29.

Guinea-hen, described, iii. 135.

Guinea-horse, remarkable exercise and sports with it among the grandees of that country, ii. 17.

Guinea-pig, by Brisson placed among the rabbit kind; native of the warmer climates; rendered domestic, and now become common every where; its description; in some places a principal favourite; often displacing the lap-dog; manner of living among us; most helpless and inoffensive, scarce possessed of any courage; their animosity exerted against each other; often fight obstinately, and the stronger destroys the weaker; no natural instinct, the female sees her young destroyed without attempting to protect them; suffer themselves to be devoured by cats; fed upon recent vegetables, they seldom drink; sometimes gnaw clothes, paper, or other things of the kind; drink by lapping; confined in a room seldom cross the floor, but keep along the wall; never move abreast together; chiefly seek the most intricate retreats, and venture out only when all interruption is removed, like the rabbits; in cold weather more active; a very cleanly animal; their place must be regularly cleaned, and a new bed of hay provided for them once a week; the young falling into the dirt, or other ways decomposed, the female takes an aversion to them, and never permits them to visit her more; her employment and that of the male, consists in smoothing their skins, disposing their hair, and improving its gloss, and take this office by turns; do the same to their young, and bite them when refractory; reared without any artificial heat; no keeping them from fire in winter if once permitted to approach it; manner of sleeping; the male and female watch one another by turns; never seen both asleep at the same time; generally capable of coupling at six weeks old; time of their gestation; the female brings forth from three to five at a time; not without pain; the female admits the male the very day she has brought forth, and again becomes pregnant; suckles her young about twelve or fifteen days, and suffers the young of others, though older, to drain her, to the disadvantage of her own; produced with eyes open, and in twelve hours equal to the dam in agility; capable of feeding upon vegetables from the beginning; their disputes for the warmest place, or most agreeable food; manner of fighting; most timorous creature upon earth, a falling leaf disturbs them, and every animal overcomes them; flesh indifferent food; difficultly tamed; suffer no approaches but of the person who breeds them; manner of eating; drink seldom, and make water often; grunt like a young pig; appear to chew the cud, ii. 285 to 289.

Guinea-sheep have a kind of dewlap under the chin; breed with other sheep, therefore not animals of another kind, ii. 63.

Guiratega, name given by the natives of the Brasil to the *little wood-pecker*, iii. 166.

Gulls, places where found in plenty; their food, iii. 281; various ways of imposing upon each other; contests in breeding; residence, with their nests and eggs; their flesh; method of taking them in the Froe islands; anciently a law in Norway concerning those who died in taking them, 283 to 285.

Gulph, the Persian; deadly wind along its coasts, i. 206; chief pearl fishery carried on there, iv. 63.

Gun, wind-gun instrument determining the elasticity of the air; a ball from it pierces a thick board, i. 178; great guns, in climates near the equator, with every precaution, after some years become useless, and why, 181.

Gunpowder, readily fires with a spark, not with the flame, i. 53; will not go off in an exhausted receiver; a train of gunpowder laid, one part in open air, the other in vacuo, the latter will remain untouched, 192.

Gurnard, description of this fish, iii. 400.

Gustavus Adolphus, attempted in vain to form a regiment of Laplanders, as they can live but in their own country, and in their own manner, i. 347.

Guts, most birds have two blind guts, which, in quadrupeds, are found single, iii. 43.

Gymnotus, the *carapo*, description of this fish, iii. 402.

Gyr-falcon, exceeds all others in largeness of size ; its description, iii. 98.

Gyrle, name given by hunters to the roebuck the second year, ii. 111.

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Habit, contracted during life, to make out pleasures and pains in extremes, though either can hardly be suffered or enjoyed to the utmost, i. 344.

Haddock, a periodical shoal appeared on the Yorkshire coasts, on December 10, 1766, and exactly on the same day in the following year, iii. 410.

Hæmorrhoids, a kind of serpent, iv. 147.

Hail, Cartesians say, is a frozen cloud half-melted and frozen again in its descent ; the most injurious meteor in our climate ; hail-stones fourteen inches round ; struck out an eye of a young man, and killed him on the spot ; a dreadful shower recorded by Mezeray, fell in 1510 ; the hail-stones were of a blueish colour, and some weighed a hundred pounds ; the fishes were general sufferers in that great calamity, i. 215 to 216.

Hair of the Roman ladies praised for the redness of its shade, i. 271 ; the hair under the temples and at the back of the head seldom known to fall ; found most different in different climates ; marks the country and the disposition of the man ; by the ancients held a sort of excrement, produced like the nails ; according to moderns, every hair lives, receives nutriment, fills and distends, like other parts of the body ; takes colour from the juices flowing through it ; each, viewed with a microscope, consists of five or six lesser, wrapped up in one common covering, and sends forth branches at the joints ; suitable to the size or shape of the pore through which it issues ; bulbous at the root, and its ends resemble a brush ; length and strength of hair a mark of a good constitution ; Americans and the Asiatics have it thick, black, straight, and shining ; inhabitants of the torrid climates of Africa have it black, short, and woolly ; the people of Scandinavia have it red, long, and curled ; opinion that every man has dispositions resembling those of the inhabitants of countries he resembles in the colour and nature of his hair ; curled hair among us a beauty ; the Greeks have taken one of their national distinctions from the length and straightness of the hair, i. 277, 278 ; Americans take the greatest pains in cutting their hair ; the Tartars waged a long and bloody war with the Persians because they would not give their whiskers the orthodox cut ; variety in customs and manner of cutting hair, 283 ; trade of the inhabitants of Angora with the hair of animals of their country ; camblet and the other stuffs made of it, ii. 68 ; hair of the cat rubbed in the dark sends forth shining sparks, 150 ; Syria and Persia noted for long soft hair to the animals bred in them, 153 ; each hair of the lynx of three different colours ; of the black fox so disposed as impossible to tell which way the grain lies, 218 ; coats of hair seem to thicken at the approach of winter ; among quadrupeds, as among men, thin spare diet produces hair, 229 ; on the soles of the feet, and on the inside of the mouths of hares, 260.

Halcyon, a rapacious water-fowl, iii. 314. See *King-fisher*.

Halley (Dr.) his plausible theory to explain the invariable motion of the winds, i. 197, 198.

Hallontide, in 1580 ; an army of mice so over-run the marshes near Southminster that they eat up the grass to the roots, iii. 114.

Halos, or luminous circles, oftener seen in countries near the poles, than any other part of the earth, i. 222.

Hammer, the yellow, bird of the sparrow kind, iii. 197, 198.

Hamster, the cricetus or German rat of Mr. Buffon, ii. 299.

Hand, sufficient to vindicate the dominion of man over other animals, a poor assertion ; a man without hands or legs converts his stumps to most convenient purposes, and performs astonishing feats of dexterity, ii. 389, 390.

Harbour of a stag, in covert or thicket, ii. 98.

Hare, a gregarious animal, where it has no enemies but beasts of the forest, ii. 37; the swiftest animal for the time it continues to run, 256; animals of the hare-kind inoffensive and timorous; being the prey of every voracious animal, are incessantly pursued; placed by Pyerius among those that chew the cud; whether or not, certainly the lips continually move sleeping or waking; they use their fore-paws like hands; that kind remarkably salacious, and furnished by Nature with ampler powers than others for propagation; if not thinned by constant depredations would over-run the earth; of these, the hare the largest and most timorous; has large prominent eyes placed backwards to see behind as it runs; these never closed; it sleeps with them open; the ears movable, and capable of direction to every quarter; muscles of its body strong and without fat; hinder feet longer than the fore on account of speed; persecuted by dogs, cats, weasels, and birds of prey; in a state of engendering very early; females go with young thirty days, and bring forth three or four at a time; has young of different ages in her womb together; though already impregnated she admits the male, and receives a second impregnation; reason of this extraordinary circumstance; the young brought forth with their eyes open; the dam suckles them twenty days; food they are fond of; sleep or repose in their form by day, and live only by night; the rutting season begins in February; the male pursues and discovers the female by the sagacity of its nose; the slightest breeze or falling of a leaf disturbs their revels; they instantly fly off, each taking a separate way; are more easily taken than the fox, a much slower animal than they, and why; always choose to run up a hill, and why; have the sole of the foot furnished with hair, and seem the only animal with hair on the inside of the mouth; live seven or eight years, and come to perfection in one year; females live longer; Mr. Buffon makes a doubt of it; seldom heard to cry, except when seized or wounded; their cry nearly like the squalling of a child; are easily tamed, but are incapable of attachment to any person; though never so young, regain their native freedom at the first opportunity; have a good ear, and been taught to beat the drum, dance to measure, and go through the manual exercise; make themselves a form where the colour of the grass resembles that of their skin, open to the south in winter, and to the north in summer; sore hunted, will start a fresh hare, and squat in its form; sometimes will hide among a flock of sheep, and no vigilance can drive them from it; some enter holes like the rabbit, by hunters termed going to vault; as it tires, treads heavier, and its scent is stronger; young hares tread heavier than the old; male makes doublings of greater compass than the female; divided by hunters into mountain and measled hares; mode of expression, the more you hunt, the more hares you shall have, and why; what animals persecute the hare; its enemies so various, that it seldom reaches the short term limited to it by nature; in countries near the north pole, they become white, and are often in great troops of four or five hundred; their skins sold for less than seven shillings a hundred; the fur known to form a considerable article in the hat manufacture; found also entirely black, in much less quantity than the former; some have been seen with horns, but rarely; those in hot countries smaller than ours; those in the Milanese the best in Europe; scarce a country where not found, from the torrid zone to the polar circle; natives of Guinea kill numbers at a time; in what manner; the Jews, ancient Britons, and Mahometans, all considered it as an unclean animal, and religiously abstained from it; Apicius shews the manner of dressing a hare in true Roman taste; hare and rabbit distinct kinds, refuse to mix with each other; an instance of it, Mr. Buffon having in vain tried to make them engender with each other; laws made for the preservation of them, 256 to 264.

Harfang, or great Hudson's Bay owl, the largest of the nocturnal tribe, and as white as snow, iii. 110.

Harlequin, a kind of a dog, iii. 193; an useless animal, somewhat between an Italian greyhound and a Dutch mastiff, 194.

Harmony of our planetary system, i. 11.

Harold, See *Hawk*, iii. 97.

Harp, the story of Arion's gathering the dolphins about the ship, i. 322.

Harpies, that ancient idea taken from the rousette, or the great bat of Madagascar, ii. 332, 333

Harrier, hound, and beagle, all of the same kind, ii. 191 ; a dog of the generous kind, 192.

Hart, name of the stag the sixth year, ii. 98.

Hartshorn, and musk, the only medicines of reputation of several procurable from quadrupeds, ii. 74.

Harvey, his opinion about the formation of the incipient animal ; altercations against his system, i. 239.

Hatching, nothing exceeds the patience of birds hatching, iii. 48 ; Mr. Addison's observations to this purpose, 49 ; the emu very peculiar in the hatching of its young, 70 ; the crocodile's eggs hatched in the sand, iv. 104.

Hatfield, in Yorkshire, description of one of those spouts called typhons, observed there in 1687, i. 226.

Havannah, in the fortunate expedition which gave us that place, the climate left not a fifth part of the army survivors of the victory, i. 187.

Hawfinch, a bird of the sparrow kind, iii. 198.

Hawk-kind, destroys mice, ii. 295 ; perceives a lark at a distance which neither men nor dogs could spy, iii. 40 ; distinctive marks from other carnivorous birds, 81 ; in old paintings, the criterion of nobility ; no person of rank stirred without his hawk in his hand ; Harold, afterwards King of England, going on an important embassy into Normandy, is drawn in an old bas relief, embarking with a hawk on his fist, and a dog under his arm ; in those days it was sufficient for noblemen's sons to wind the horn and carry the hawk fair ; this diversion in such high esteem among the great all over Europe, that Frederick, Emperor of Germany, wrote a treatise upon hawking ; this amusement now much given over in this kingdom, and why ; this sport attended with very great expense ; in the reign of James I. Sir Thomas Monson gave a thousand pounds for a cast of hawks ; in the reign of Edward III. it was made felony to steal a hawk ; to take its eggs was punished by imprisonment for a year and a day, with a fine at the king's pleasure ; in the reign of Elizabeth, the imprisonment reduced to three months, the offender to lie in prison till he got security for his good behaviour during seven years ; in earlier times the art of gunning was but little used, and the hawk was then valuable for its affording diversion and procuring delicacies for the table not otherwise to be obtained ; of such spirit that he keeps all birds in awe and subjection to his prowess ; distinctive marks of the tribe called the long-winged hawks ; their names and description ; have attachment to their feeders, and docility the baser race are strangers to ; names of hawks of the baser race ; those of the generous breed remarkable for courage, swiftness, and docility, in obeying the commands and the signs of their master ; to train up the hawk so as to hunt for his master, and bring him the game he shall kill, requires great skill and assiduity ; account of the manner of training a hawk ; falconers had a language peculiar, in which they conversed and wrote, 96 to 103.

Hawk (sparrow) pursues the thrush and the linnet, iii. 78 ; said to be the boldest and the best of all others for the chase, 104.

Hawk (goss), and sparrow-hawk, unfit for training ; taught to fly at game, but little obtained from them, iii. 104.

Hawkins (Sir Robert.) See *Azores*, i. 140.

Head of man externally and internally different from that of all other animals, the monkey-kind excepted, i. 285 ; whence originally the flat-heads of the American Indians, 360 ; of quadrupeds different from other, but adapted to their several ways of living, and how, 401 ; in all birds, except nocturnal, the head smaller and less proportioned to the body than in quadrupeds, iii. 39 ; of the great Greenland whale makes a third of its bulk, 341.

Hearing, extreme delicacy of this sense in birds, iii. 40 ; that sense in whales in great perfection, 342.

Hearse, name of the female of the stag, the second year, ii. 98.

Heart, a broken heart, in common language, in reality a disorder caused by hunger, i. 300.

Heat, Boerhaave considered it so prejudicial to health that he never went near a fire, i. 188 ; of the blood in man and other animals about thirty degrees above congelation ; in animals which sleep the winter, not above ten, ii. 280.

Hecla, the bellowings of that volcano believed by the inhabitants of Iceland to be the cries of the damned, i. 56.

Hedgehog, with an appearance the most formidable, the most harmless of animals; destitute of either cunning or swiftness; has but one expedient for safety, and from this alone it finds protection; the cat, the weazel, the ferret, and the martin, decline combat with it, even the dog attacks it ineffectually; its description; usual appearance on the approach of danger; to disgust its enemy from pursuit sheds its urine, the smell of which is sufficient to send him off; sleeps by day, and ventures out by night; places where found; its food; does not suck cattle; are not hurtful in gardens or orchards; the spines so disposed that no fruit will stick upon them; appears serviceable in ridding the fields of insects and worms; Mr. Buffon accuses it of tricks of which, from its form and habits, one would not be led to suspect it; he kept males and females together, but they never coupled; time of their coupling; sleep during winter, but do not lay up provisions for that season; at no time eat much, and remain long without food; blood cold, and their flesh not good for food; their skins converted to no use except to muzzle calves from sucking, ii. 309 to 312; destroyed and devoured by the fox; in what manner, 214.

Hedge-hog of the sea, a cartilaginous fish of the sea-orb kind, iii. 392.

Hedge-sparrow, a slender billed bird, iii. 196.

Height; Maximin, the Emperor, above nine feet in stature, i. 294.

Heliogabalus, noted for having the brains of six hundred ostriches dressed in one dish, iii. 66.

Hellebore, a quantity of the black sort pounded carelessly purged several persons who were present, and the operator strongly, i. 189.

Helms (St.) fire, or the mariner's light, i. 218.

Helmont, his experiment to shew all things made of water, i. 99.

Hemisphere, half illuminated by northern lights, i. 217.

Hemlock, eat by the horse without injury, ii. 5.

Hemuse, name hunters give the roebuck the third year, ii. 111.

Hen, in the Museum at Brussels, a creature covered with feathers and hair, said to be bred between a rabbit and a hen, ii. 264.

Hen, of the common sort, moderately fed, lays above an hundred eggs from spring to autumn, iii. 51; after three years become effete and barren; clutches one brood of chickens in a season; instances of two very rare; number of eggs of a domestic hen in the year above two hundred, being well fed, supplied with water, and at liberty; trodden by the cock or not she continues to lay; eggs of this kind never by hatching produce living animals; her nest made without care; clucking season artificially protracted, and entirely removed, in what manner; left to herself would seldom lay above twenty eggs without attempting to hatch them; as she lays, her eggs being removed, she continues to increase the number; in the wild state seldom lays above fifteen eggs; particularities of incubation; affection and pride after producing chickens; every invading animal she boldly attacks, the horse, the dog, or the mastiff; marching before her little troop, by a variety of notes calls her train to their food, or warns them of danger; instance of the brood running for security into a hedge while the hen stood boldly forth, and faced a fox that came for plunder; twelve chickens are the greatest number that a hen can rear and clutch at a time; artificial method of hatching chickens in stoves practised at Grand Cairo, or in a laboratory with graduated heat effected with woollen hens, by Mr. Reaumur; by these contrivances, from a hen naturally producing twelve chickens in the year, are obtained artificially above two hundred, 121 to 123; common hen supplies the place of the hen-pheasant, when refusing to hatch her eggs, and performs the task with perseverance and success, but the young ones very difficult to be reared, 133.

Hen (Guinea), or *Barbary hen*, described, iii. 135.

Hen (water) described, residence and food; nest and habits, iii. 260 to 264.

Henry IV. King of Denmark, desirous of trying the skill of a musician, who boasted he could excite men to madness, submitted to the operation, became mad, and killed four of his attendants, i. 323.

Herculaneum overwhelmed in that eruption of Vesuvius in which Pliny the

naturalist was suffocated; its ruins lately discovered at sixty feet below the surface, and forty below the bottom of the sea, i. 58.

Hermaphrodites, such are all animals of the snail kind, iv. 49; the bivalve tribe are so too; they require no assistance from each other towards impregnation, 54, 55.

Hermetical-sealing, a glass vessel, the meaning of it, i. 100.

Heron, a ruminating bird, ii. 39; the great heron, in former times, bred familiarly in our marshes; not now, and why, iii. 52; anatomical distinction in which herons differ from other birds; of this tribe Brisson has enumerated forty-seven sorts; excessively destructive and voracious; ever have lean and carrion bodies; description of the common heron; indolent and cowardly, and flies at the approach of the sparrow-hawk; commits the greatest devastations in fresh waters; destroys more in a week than the otter in three months; a fish ever so large he will strike at and wound, though unable to carry it away; one heron, says Willoughby, will destroy fifteen thousand carp in half a year; usual attitude waiting for prey; food in cold and stormy seasons; manner of fishing; Willoughby's receipt for taking them; their nests; never in flocks when they fish, but making nests, they love each other's society; flesh of the young esteemed in France; formerly much esteemed in England; at present nothing domestic but a cat will touch it; method used to obtain them; the young once excluded, the old incessantly provide them with an amazing quantity of fish; instance of it; by Mr. Keysler's account, this bird may exceed sixty years; recent instance of one taken in Holland, with a silver-plate to one leg, and an inscription, that it had been struck by the Elector of Cologne's hawks thirty-five years before; they contract a consumptive disposition, 237 to 242.

Heron-hawking, a favourite diversion among our ancestors; had laws enacted for the preservation of the species; he who destroyed their eggs was liable to a penalty of twenty shillings for each offence, iii. 233.

Herrara confirms the existence of giants, i. 372.

Herring, its description, iii. 403; of migrating fish, this and the pilchard take the most adventurous voyages; places where the herrings are in the greatest abundance; numerous enemies met in their migrations; in Chesapeake bay the shoals so great as to cover the shores, and become a nuisance; that body upon our coast begins to appear off the Shetland isles in April; forerunners; the grand shoal descending in June, and announced by the gannet, gull, &c.; the main body divided into distinct columns of five or six miles in length, and three or four broad; in bright weather reflect a variety of splendid colours; fishermen take two thousand barrels at a single draught; places of Europe where herrings are punctual in their visitations; doubts in every part of their migration; first great bank for herrings was along the Norway shore; before 1584, the number of ships from various parts of Europe resorting thither exceeded some thousands; quantity of herrings then assembled there was such, that a spear stuck in the water, as Olaus Magnus asserts, would stand on end; soon after that period they deserted the Norway shores, and took up along the German coasts; no cause assigned for this seemingly capricious desertion; their greatest colonies now in the British channel, and upon the Irish shores; a herring suffered to multiply unmolested, and undiminished for twenty years, would show a progeny greater in bulk than ten such globes as that we live upon, 410 to 415.

Hertfordshire, a dreadful storm which happened in it, in 1697, described, i. 215.

Hexagons; with Pappus, the most convenient figures in building; cells of bees are perfect hexagons, iv. 261.

Hide of the elk often known to turn a musket-ball, ii. 117.

Heira island, in the Mediterranean, risen and formed by subterraneous explosions, i. 77.

Heiro. See *Archimedes*, i. 112.

Hind, or female of the stag, has no horns; time of gestation, and usual season of bringing forth; hides her young in obscure thickets; obliged to use all arts to conceal them from the stag, the most dangerous of her pursuers; how she defends her young, ii. 94, 95; the female stag, still so called the third year, 98; manner of knowing the track of a hind, 99; inhabitants of Canada have no other milk but

that of the hind ; and no other cheese but that made of it, 104 ; the hunter's name for the roe-buck, the first year, 110.

Hippocampus, the sea-horse, its description, iii. 391.

Hippocrates, his opinion about the formation of the incipient animal, i. 239.

Hippopotamus not afraid singly to oppose the lion, ii. 160 ; its dimensions ; places where it resides ; its food ; swims with much force, and remains at the bottom for thirty or forty minutes ; it commits dreadful havock among the plantations ; method the Africans use to frighten it back to its element ; inoffensive in arts and disposition ; never attacks mariners in their boats, unless inadvertently struck against, or otherwise disturbed, then it would send them at once to the bottom ; instances of its great strength ; never goes beyond the mouth of freshwater rivers ; attacked on shore, and incapable of vengeance upon a flying enemy, returns to the river, and plunges in head foremost ; the princes of Africa amuse themselves with combats on their lakes between this and other formidable animals ; the negroes, apprised of its force, do not engage it ; continues uncontrolled master of the river, all other fly its approach, or become an easy prey ; moves slowly upon land ; seldom goes from the river side, unless pressed by necessities of hunger, or of bringing forth its young ; lives upon fish and vegetables ; natives of Africa say it often devours children, and other creatures surprised upon land ; the young are excellent eating ; the female seldom produces above one at a time ; hearing the slightest noise, she dashes into the stream, and the young one follows her with equal alacrity ; Dr. Pococke has seen their flesh sold in shambles like beef ; their breast thought as delicate eating as veal ; this creature, once numerous at the mouth of the Nile, now wholly unknown in Lower Egypt, and nowhere found but above the cataracts, 412 to 414.

Historian (natural), what his proper business, i. 12 ; going too much into speculation certainly wrong, and why, 19 ; method his principal help, 387 ; faults of systematic writers, 388.

History (natural), of all other sciences has the least danger of obscurity, and why, i. 393 ; best set forth, as Mr. Locke has observed, by drawings of animals, taken from life, 397 ; rule in natural history, that neither horns, colour, fineness or length of hair, or position of ears, make actual distinctions in the kinds, ii. 69 ; accounts of fishes little entertaining ; philosophers not studying their nature, but employed in increasing their catalogue, iii. 320 ; Dampier has added more to it than half the philosophers before him, iv. 28 ; one of the strangest discoveries in all natural history, 306.

Hobby, bird of the generous breed of hawks, for smaller game, daring larks, and stooping at quails, iii. 99.

Hogs, animals of this kind resemble those of the horse as well as the cow kind, and in what ; this kind partakes of the rapacious and the peaceful kinds ; offends no animal of the forest ; remarkable that none of this kind ever shed their teeth ; any animal dying in the forest, or so wounded as to make no resistance, is the prey of the hog, who refuses no animal food, however putrid ; in a state of wildness, most delicate in the choice of its vegetables, rejects a greater number than any other ; they eat but seventy-two plants, and reject a hundred and seventy ; indelicacy of this animal more in our apprehensions than in its nature, and why ; in orchards of peach-trees in North America, rejects the fruit that has lain a few hours on the ground, and watch hours for a fresh wind-fall ; have had mice burrowing in their backs while fattening in the sty, without seeming to perceive it ; scent the hounds at a distance ; by nature stupid, inactive, and drowsy ; its whole life a round of sleep and gluttony ; has passions more active only when incited by venery, or when the wind blows with vehemence ; foresees the approach of bad weather ; much agitated on hearing any of its kind in distress ; have often gathered round a dog that teased them, and killed him upon the spot ; their various diseases ; generally live, when permitted, to eighteen or twenty years, the females produce to the age of fifteen ; produce from ten to twenty at a litter, and that twice a year ; in the wild state less prolific, ii. 130 to 135.

Hog (Guinea), and that about Upsal, described, ii. 136.

Hog (water). See *Capibara*, ii. 140.

Hog of Borneo. See *Babyrouessa*, ii. 142.

Hog of the isthmus of Darien, described by Wafer, ii. 44.

Hohanko, a river of China, in Asia; its course, i. 123; receives thirty-five lesser rivers, 127.

Holland, a conquest from the sea, and rescued from its bosom; the surface of its earth below the level of the bottom of the sea; upon approaching the coast, it is looked down upon from the sea as into a valley; is every day rising higher, and by what means; those parts which formerly admitted large men of war are now too shallow to receive ships of moderate burden, i. 160, 161.

Honey, the polecat and the martin feed upon honey, ii. 231; from what part of the flower it is extracted, iv. 263; two kinds of it; which to be preferred, 271; that gathered by the humble-bee, 272; gathered by the black bees in the tropical climates, neither so unpalatable nor so surfeiting as ours; produced by the bees at Guadaloupe, 272. See *Bees*, 272 to 274.

Honeycomb, name of the second stomach of ruminating animals, ii. 38.

Hoof of the Persian mares so hard that shoeing is unnecessary, ii. 13.

Hooper, name of the wild swan, on account of the harshness of its voice, iii. 300.

Horizon, seems wrapt in a muddy cloud, upon the approach of winter, under the line, i. 217.

Horn, to wind it, and to carry the hawk fair, formerly sufficient accomplishments for noblemen's sons, iii. 97.

Horns, in what manner those of animals are produced, i. 285; grow differently in deer from those of sheep or cows; deers' horns furrowed along the sides, and why; in every respect resembling a vegetable substance, grafted upon the head of the stag; beauty and size of those of a stag mark their strength and their vigour; the time of shedding them; severe winters retard the shedding the horns in stags; generally increase in thickness and height from the second year to the eighth; partake of the nature of the soil; their horns shed, they seek the plainer part of the country, remote from those animals they are then unable to oppose, and walk with their heads stooping down, to prevent striking against the branches of a tree, ii. 89 to 91; of a stag, called his head; their names according to the different ages of the stag, 98; the author has seen the horns of the elk ten feet nine inches from one tip to the other, 113; applied to the same purposes as harts-horn, 117; rein-deer converted into glue, 127; of the rhinoceros, sometimes from three to three feet and a half long, composed of the most solid substance, and pointed to inflict the most fatal wounds, 409; of owls nothing more than two or three feathers that stand up on each side of the head, over the ear, iii. 109.

Horses, characteristic marks given by Linnæus; eats hemlock without injury, ii. 5; near as the ape approaches man in external conformation, so the horse is the most remote; wild horses herd together, and feed in droves of five or six hundred; one among their number always stands as sentinel, and after having alarmed his fellows to flight, remains the hindmost, 67; there are but three animals of the horse kind, the horse, ass, and zebra, 31; a horse will not carry upon its back a weight of more than two or three hundred pounds, i. 291; to estimate the strength of a horse, is not to try what he can carry, but what he can draw; he draws a load ten men cannot move; and in some cases a draught-horse draws better being somewhat loaded, 292; allured by music, 322; not readily attacked by the lion; the combats between them in Italy, 403; one fond of oysters, 408; from what country the horse came originally uncertain; according to the ancients, wild horses once in Europe; the colder climates do not agree with them; how wild horses are caught; set at liberty they never become wild again; the Buccaneers agreeably surprised to see their faithful horses present themselves again with their usual assiduity, and receive the rein; this animal in a state of nature in the old, not the new world, ii. 7; wild horses finding a tame horse to associate with them gather round him, and oblige him to seek safety by flight; countries where wild horses are found; the natives of Angola, or Cafraria, catch a horse only to eat him. *Arabian wild horses*, the most beautiful breed, the most generous, swift, and persevering; the negroes show terror and surprise when first they see a horse, 8; no Arabian, however poor, but has his horse; tame Arabian horses, some valued at a thousand ducats; different classes among the Arabians; they know the race of a horse by his appearance; Arabians preserve the pedigree of their horses with

care, for several ages, 10, 11; countries into which the race of their horses has spread itself, 12; they take the wild horses with traps; the young horse considered by them as a great delicacy; they feast upon him while any part is remaining; the usual manner of trying the swiftness of Arabian horses by hunting the ostrich; and a horse of the first speed is able to outrun it, 9; treat their horses gently; hold a discourse with them; permits them to sleep indiscriminately with his family; written attestations given to persons who buy Arabian horses; they stand stock still in the midst of their career, the rider happening to fall; keep them saddled at their tents from morning to night to prevent surprise; when the Arabians begin to break their horses; how the Arabians dress and feed their horses, 11; first began the management of horses in the time of sheque Ishmael; the rapidity of the flight of Arabian horses is such, that the dogs give up the pursuit, 9; upon computation, the speed of the English horse is one-fourth greater carrying a rider, than that of the swiftest barb without one; in Persia, according to Marcus Paulus, there are studs of ten thousand white mares altogether, very fleet, and with the hoof so hard that shoeing is unnecessary; Numidian race much degenerated; the Tingitanians and Egyptians have the fame of rearing the finest horses for size and beauty, 13; horses of Barbary; an Italian peculiar sport, in which horses of this breed run against each other, 12; Spanish genetie described, 13; those of Andalusia pass for the best, and preferred as war-horses to every other country; Italian horses have a particular aptitude to prance, 13; the horses of *India* weak and washy; fed with peas, sugar, and hutter; one brought to England not much larger than a common mastiff; climates excessively hot seem unfavourable to horses; remarkable sports on horseback; the horses of the Gold Coast and Guinea extremely little, but very managable; of *China*, weak, little, ill-shaped, and cowardly; those of *Corea* timorous, as not to be serviceable in war, 17, 18; *Tartar* horses very serviceable in war; they were properly the conquerors of China; march two or three days without stopping; continue five or six, without eating more than a handful of grass at every eight hours; and remain without drinking four and twenty hours; lose all their strength when brought into China or the Indies; thrive pretty well in Persia and Turkey; the Tartars towards the north have a breed of little horses which they set such a value upon that it is forbidden to sell them to strangers; ancient opinions on the nature and qualities of the horses of Thessaly, Achaia, Ethiopia, Arabia, Africa, Italy, and particularly of Apulia; of Sicily, Cappadocia, Syria, Armenia, Media, Persia; of Sardinia, and Corsica; of Spain, Wallachia, Transylvania; of Denmark, Scandinavia, Flanders; of the Gaulish horses; of the German, Swiss, Hungarian; and lastly, of the English horses, 18, 19; *Danish* horses of such excellent size and strong make, that they are preferred to all others for draught; some streaked like the tiger, or mottled like the leopard; *German* and *Hungarian* horses; *Dutch* horses are good for draught, the best come from the province of Friesland; the *Flanders* horses, 14; few *French* horses good; in general are heavy shouldered; the best of that country come from Limosin, and Normandy furnishes the next; *American* tame horses admirable; method of hunting with them, 15; islands of the Archipelago have very good horses; those of Crete were in great reputation among the ancients, at present seldom used in the country itself, because of the unevenness of the ground; the original horses of *Morocco* smaller than the Arabian breed; in Turkey there are horses of all races; *Persian* horses, in general, the most beautiful and most valuable of all the East, 16; some greatly esteemed in the Ukraine, in Wallachia, Poland, Sweden, 18; *English* horses excel the Arabians in size and swiftness; are more durable than the barb, and more hardy than the Persian; one instance of their great rapidity, in the admirable Childers, frequently known to move eighty-two feet and a half in a second, 19; fault of our manner of breaking horses; the French-managed horse never falls before, but more usually on one side; the English are for speed and dispatch, the French and other nations are more for parade and spirit; English hunters considered the noblest and most useful horses in the world, 20; Roger de Belegnac, the first recorded to have attempted mending our native breed; number of horses in London in the reign of King Stephen, said to have amounted to twenty thousand; in the times of Queen Elizabeth, the kingdom could not supply two thousand horses to form the cavalry;

Powisland, in Wales, for many ages famous for a swift and generous race of horses, and why, 21 ; perfections which a horse ought to have, according to Camerarius, 22 ; a ruminating animal, ii. 39 ; in a course of years impoverish the ground, 42 ; the horse and the ass differ not so much in form as the cow and the bison, yet the former are distinct animals, and the latter animals of the same kind, 45 ; eats two hundred and sixty-two plants, and rejects two hundred and twelve, 133 ; famished horses more hairy than those fed plentifully, 229 ; for hunting lions must be of that sort called charossi ; all others fly at the sight of the lion, 160 ; are killed by wild asses, 26 ; destroyed by the American bat called vampyre, in South America, 333.

Horse (sea), described, iii. 391.

Hortensius, the orator, the first who had peacocks served up at an entertainment in Rome, iii. 125.

Hospitals erected in India for the maintenance of all kinds of vermin, i. 352 ; for monkeys, erected by the Bramins, ii. 380.

Hottentots outstrip lions in the chase, as travellers report, i. 292 ; make much and very extraordinary use of the bison, ii. 48.

Hound, harrier, and beagle, all of the same kind ; *grey matin hound*, transported to the North, becomes a great Danish dog, and this sent into the South, becomes a greyhound of different sizes ; the same transported into Ireland, the Ukraine, Tartary, Epirus, and Albania, becomes the great wolf-dog known by the name of the *Irish wolf-dog* ; the *blood-hound*, a dog of the generous kind ; and likewise the *gaze-hound*, and the *greyhound* ; all used for hunting ; the blood-hound, a dog of great use and in high esteem among our ancestors ; formerly employed in hunting thieves and robbers, whom they traced by their footsteps ; the gaze-hound hunted, like our greyhound, by the eye, not by the scent ; the greyhound formerly held in such estimation that it was the peculiar companion of a gentleman ; by some game-laws, persons under a certain rank in life are forbid from keeping this animal, ii. 191 to 193. *Greyhound fox*, the largest, tallest, and boldest of the kind, ii. 217.

Howlet, a kind of owl without horns, iii. 110.

Hudson's Bay, above twelve thousand martins' skins annually imported from thence into England, ii. 239.

Huers, name given to the men employed to give signals where to extend the nets in the pilchard-fishery, iii. 413.

Hughes. See *Polypus*, iv. 323.

Hull had the honour of first attempting that profitable branch of trade, the whale-fishery, iii. 347.

Humber, a new island formed at the mouth of this river ; it is about nine miles in circumference, and worth to the proprietor about eight hundred pounds a year, i. 80.

Humming-bird, is the smallest of birds, and seems nearly allied to the insect, iii. 56 ; belongs to the sparrow-kind, 196 ; found in great numbers, during the summer season, in America ; the smallest of them about the size of a hazel-nut ; its description ; the larger humming-bird is near half as big as the common wren ; its description ; are seen fluttering about the flowers without ever lighting upon them ; their wings in such rapid motion it is impossible to discern their colours, except by their glittering ; but only extracting the honey as with a kiss ; their nests and the number of eggs ; their time of incubation ; instance of their docility ; countries where found ; in the Leeward Islands they continue in a torpid state during the severity of winter ; Labat asserts, that besides the humming noise produced by the wings, they have a pleasing melancholy melody in their voices, small and proportioned to their organs ; the Indians make use of this pretty bird's plumage ; in what manner the children take them ; when taken, they are instantly killed, and hung up in the chimney to dry ; some dry them in stoves ; at present this bird is taken rather for selling as a curiosity to Europeans than an ornament for themselves, iii. 218 to 221.

Hump of the bison of different sizes, weighing from forty to fifty pounds, sometimes less ; cuts and tastes like a dressed udder ; in a few generations it wears away, ii. 49, 50.

Hunger, every animal endures the wants of sleep and hunger with less injury to health than man; hunger kills man sooner than watchfulness; more dreadful in its approaches than continuance; so terrible to man, that rather than endure its tortures he exchanges them for immediate destruction; dreadful effects of hunger related to the author by the captain of a ship, who was one of six that endured it in its extremities; different opinions concerning the cause of hunger; few instances of men dying, except at sea, of absolute hunger; those men whose disorder is caused by hunger; the number of such as die in London of hunger supposed not less than two thousand in a year; method of palliating hunger among the American Indians, i. 297 to 302; instances of amazing patience in hunger, 348.

Hunters, the English considered the noblest and most useful horses in the world, ii. 20; terms used by hunters in pursuing the stag; names invented by them for the stag, 98; for the fallow-deer, 106.

Hunting, the natural rights of hunting made royal, and when, ii. 96; the stag and the buck performed in the same manner in England, and how, 97 to 99; ancient manner of hunting the stag, 101; the manner in Sicily, and in China, 102; the wolf, 209; wolves used in hunting, 211; hunting of the fox, 214, 215; hunting the sable chiefly the lot of the exiles in Siberia, 240; of the ouran-outang, or wild man in Borneo, a favourite amusement of the king, 363; of the elephant at the Cape of Good Hope, 404; the method used to take it alive, 399, 401; manner of hunting the ostrich by the Arabians, and by the Struthophagi, iii. 67; manner of hunting the turkey, 128.

Hurco (*Aufidius*), charged by Pliny with being the first who fattened peacocks for the feasts of the luxurious, iii. 125.

Hurricane, the cloud preceding a hurricane, called by the sailors *Bull's eye*, described; houses made of timber bend to the blast of the hurricane like osiers, and recover their rectitude; hurricanes offensive to the sense of smelling; maggots brought with them, i. 207; common in all tropical climates; on the coasts of Guinea frequently three or four in a day; their seasons upon those coasts, at Loango and the opposite coast of Africa; the hurricane called tornado; its dreadful effects, 208.

Hus, in Greek signifies a sow, and *houina* derived from it, ii. 223.

Huso, the isinglass fish, caught in great quantities in the Danube, from October to January; furnishes the commodity called isinglass; method of making it; often above four hundred pounds weight; its flesh salted is better tasted, and turns red like salmon, iii. 388.

Hyæna, no words give an idea adequate to this animal's figure, deformity, and fierceness; more savage and untameable than any quadruped; for ever in a state of rage or rapacity; its description; for its size, the most terrible of all quadrupeds; defends itself against the lion, is a match for the panther, and attacks the ounce, which it seldom fails to conquer; an obscene and solitary animal; its first howl sometimes mistaken for the voice of a man moaning; its latter like the violent efforts of retching; whence it first took its name; native of the torrid zone; resides in the caverns of mountains, the clefts of rocks, or dens it has formed under earth; taken ever so young, it never can be tamed; sometimes attacks man, and carries off cattle; its eyes shines by night, and it is asserted that it sees better by night than by day; scrapes up graves, and devours dead bodies, how putrid soever; absurdities of the ancients about this animal, ii. 222 to 224.

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Jabiru and *jabiru-guacu*, birds of the crane kind, natives of Brasil; their descriptions, iii. 235.

Jacksals, hunt in a pack, and encourage each other by mutual cries; what has given rise to the report of its being the lion's provider, i. 405; travellers have mistaken the jackal for the fox; one of the commonest wild animals in the East, yet scarce any less known in Europe, or less distinctly described by naturalists; its description; in most parts of Africa takes up the place of the wolf, which in that country is not so common; its cry a lamentation resembling that of human

distress ; is more noisy in its pursuit than a dog, more voracious than the wolf ; never goes alone, but always in a pack of forty or fifty together ; seems little afraid of man ; take up with the smallest animals, and yet, when united, have courage to face the largest ; pursues its game to the doors without apprehension ; enters insolently into sheep-folds, yards, and stables, and finding nothing else, devours leather harness, boots and shoes ; scratches up new-made graves, and devours the corpse, how putrid soever ; the corpse how dug up ; follows armies, and keeps in the rear of caravans ; the most putrid substances it greedily devours ; hides in holes by day, and appears abroad at night-fall, hunts by the scent ; irreconcilable antipathy between it and the dog ; no wonder it be voracious, and why ; is as stupid as impudent ; instances of it ; Indian peasants often chase it as we do foxes, ii. 218 to 220.

Jackdaw, its description ; builds in steeples, old castles, and high rocks, iii. 153 ; rings found in the nest of a tame jackdaw, 149.

Jacobines, a kind of pigeons, iii. 186.

Jaculus, the swiftest serpent, its manner of progression by coiling, iv. 130.

Jaguar, or the panther of America, iii. 174.

James, the hermit, said to have lived a hundred and four years, i. 302.

Japanese, description of that people, i. 351.

Jaw, the upper, thought by many quite immoveable ; that it moves in man, an easy experiment will evince ; has its proper muscles behind the head for thus raising and depressing it ; the under jaw in the embryo much advanced before the upper, and in the adult hangs more backward ; in a Chinese face it falls still more backward than with us, the difference is thought half an inch, the mouth being shut naturally ; M'Laurin, a professor at Edinburgh, was subject to have his jaw dislocated ; the under jaw has often an involuntary quivering motion ; and often a state of languor produces another ; that of yawning, a very sympathetic kind of languid motion ; ridiculous instance of this sympathetic affection commonly practised upon the same famous M'Laurin, i. 279, 280.

Jay, one of the most beautiful of the British birds ; its description ; feeds upon fruits, kills small birds, and is extremely docile, iii. 159 ; lays its eggs in the hole deserted by the woodpecker, 165.

Ibex, a native of the Alps, the Pyrennees, and the mountains of Greece ; its description, ii. 70, 71.

Ibis, the Egyptians paid divine honours to this bird ; different opinions concerning the ancient and modern ibis ; Mailer's observations to this purpose ; the true ibis thought a bird of the vulture kind, called by some the capou of Pharaoh ; follows the caravans that go to Mecca to feed upon the offal of the animals that are killed on the journey ; held sacred by the Egyptians, iii. 232, 233.

Ice, very elastic, i. 107 ; floats of it diffused into plains of above two hundred leagues in length, and mountains of it rising amidst them ; flat ice and mountain ice, 142 ; their formation ; mountains of it presenting the resemblance of trees in blossom, a glory, &c. 143.

Ichneumon, by some injudiciously denominated the cat of Pharaoh, one of the boldest and most useful animals of the weasel kind ; used in Egypt for the same purposes as cats in Europe, but is more serviceable, being more expert in catching mice ; description ; discovers and destroys the eggs of the crocodile ; serpents its most natural food ; grows fast and dies soon ; easily strangles a cat stronger and larger than itself ; countries where found ; attacks every living thing it is able to overcome, and fears not the force of the dog, nor the claws of the vulture ; takes the water like an otter, and will continue under much longer ; not able to support the rigour of our winters ; one come from the island of Ceylon, climbed up the walls and the trees with very great ease ; this animal one of those formerly worshipped by the Egyptians, ii. 241 to 243.

Ichneumon-fly, its weapon of defence ; flies of this tribe owe their birth to the destruction of some other insect, within whose body they have been deposited, and upon whose vitals they have preyed, till they came to maturity ; of all others the most formidable to insects of various kinds ; it makes the body of the caterpillar the place for depositing its eggs ; the tribe is not the caterpillar's offspring, as was supposed, but its murderers ; description ; whence its name ; fears not the wasp,

and plunders its habitations ; various appetites of the several kinds of this fly ; the millions of insects this fly kills in a summer inconceivable, *ir.* 282 to 284.

Ichnæumon, a root the Indians believe an antidote for the bite of the asp or the viper, *ii.* 241.

Idra, deplorable infirmities of the workmen in the quicksilver mines near it, *i.* 51

Jean-le-Blanc, a kind of eagle ; its distinctive marks, *iii.* 87.

Jenisea, in Tartary, a river, *i.* 123 ; receives above sixty lesser rivers, 127.

Jenkins, a peasant, lived to a hundred and sixty-five years, without much regularity, *i.* 340.

Jester, in England, as late as the times of King James I. the court was furnished with a jester, *i.* 366

Jewels, the richest jewels found in an Ethiop's ear, a proverb, *i.* 283.

Ignis fatuus, or wandering fire, *i.* 218.

Iguana, description of this animal ; its flesh the greatest delicacy of Africa and America ; its food ; in what manner it is taken, *iv.* 111, 112.

Jiboyu, the great, of Java and Brazil, the dimensions of this serpent ; method of killing its prey, *iv.* 153.

Imagination, by day as well as by night, always employed, *i.* 308 ; very remarkable instances of its power in women, 363.

Impaling, in some courts of the more barbarous princes of India, they employ the elephant to impale the criminals on its enormous tusks, *ii.* 403.

Impregnation, the hare, though already impregnated, admits the male, and receives a second impregnation, *ii.* 258 ; in what manner the sea and garden-snails impregnate each other respectively, *iv.* 44 to 49 ; the bivalve shell-fish require no assistance from each other towards impregnation, 55 ; frogs impregnated without any apparent instrument of generation an object of inquiry ; continues in great obscurity ; experiments made to this purpose, 74.

Incas, Father Acosta and Garcilasso de la Vega have seen the bodies of several incas perfectly preserved from corruption, *i.* 378.

India (East) in the warm countries of India, the women are marriageable at nine or ten, and the men at twelve or thirteen, *i.* 268 ; description of the inhabitants of the islands that lie scattered in the Indian ocean ; over all India, children arrive sooner at maturity than in Europe ; they often marry and consummate, the husband at ten years old, and the wife at eight, and frequently have children at that age ; Indians have long been remarkable for cowardice and effeminacy ; are slothful, submissive, and luxurious ; they may be considered as a feeble race of sensualists ; from the times of Alexander to the present day scarcely any instances to be found of their success in arms ; their dress, 352, 353 ; the horses of India are weak and washy, *ii.* 17 ; lions are found to diminish in their numbers in this country, 154 ; the Indians eagerly pursue the porcupine in order to make embroidery of its quills, and to eat its flesh, 316 ; they eat bats in the East Indies, 331. See *Elephant*, *ii.* 403.

India (West), whence originally come the flat heads of the Amer. Indians, *i.* 360.

Indus, river, its course, *i.* 124 ; its water and that of the Thames, the most light and wholesome in the world, 101 ; the tide at the mouth of this river the greatest known, 150.

Infants, just born, may be said to come from one element into another, and why ; open their eyes the instant of their birth ; more capable of sustaining hunger, and more patient of cold, than grown persons, and why ; infants have milk in their own breasts ; their life very precarious till the age of three or more ; instances of it ; the comparative progress of the understanding greater in infants than in children of three or four years old, *i.* 259 to 263.

Inundations generally greater towards the source of rivers than farther down, and why, *i.* 122 ; some distribute health and plenty ; others cause diseases, famine, and death, 128 ; every inundation of the sea attended with some correspondent dereliction of another shore ; one of the most considerable inundations in history, is that which happened in the reign of Henry I. ; an inundation in the territory of Dort, destroyed a hundred thousand persons, and yet a greater number round the Dullart ; remarkable inundations in Friesland and Zealand, in which more than three hundred villages were overwhelmed ; their remains continue visible at the

bottom of the water in a clear day; some in which the sea has overflowed the country, and afterwards retired, 161, 162; inundation of the Thames at Dagenham, in Essex, 165; instantly produced by land spouts, 227.

Insects, in the internal parts of South America and Africa they grow to a prodigious size, and why; those of the minute kind in the northern climates not half so large as in the temperate zone; the ocean has its insects; their feet are placed upon their backs, and almost all without eyes, i. 233, 234; in some countries almost darken the air, and a candle cannot be lighted without their instantly flying upon it, and putting out the flame, 237, and iv. 306; many may be multiplied by being cut in pieces, i. 242; many of the tribes brought forth from the egg, 245; have no eye-lids whatsoever, 276; the Indians are fearful of killing the meanest, 352; quickly brought to change and adapt themselves to the climate, 399; have their stomachs composed of muscular fibres; of a ruminating kind, ii. 39, 40; afford so great a variety as to elude the search of the most inquisitive pursuer, iii. 36; those with the greatest number of legs move the slowest, iv. 66; the general definition of insects, 158; the different classes, 160; general characteristics of insects without wings, 162; of those that have wings, 197; some continue under the form of an aurelia not ten days; some twenty; some several months, and even for a year, 238; general rule, that the female is larger than the male, 245; every insect that lives a year after its full growth is obliged to pass four or five months without nourishment, and will seem to be dead all that time, 289; description of that which forms and resides in the gall-nut, 301.

Instinct of all animals in choosing the proper times of copulation, i. 413; the Guinea-pig has not that natural instinct so common to almost every other creature, ii. 286.

Intestines, in all animals the size of the intestines proportioned to the nature of the food, i. 403; intestines of ruminating animals enlarged by nature, to take in a greater supply; those of the carnivorous kind are short, ii. 37, 38; also thin and lean; but of the ruminating are strong, fleshy, and covered with fat, 39; of sheep found to be above thirty times the length of the body; those of the wild cat not above three times the length of its body, 151; this shortness still unaccounted for, 152; of the rein-deer washed like our tripe, in high esteem among the Laplanders, 127; of the bat, in some measure resemble those of man, 328; those of the manati longer, in proportion, than those of any other creature, the horse excepted, 353; the tripe of woodpeckers want that intestine called the cæcum, iii. 163; the lamprey seems to have but one, 382; those of the crab have many convolutions, iv. 12.

John-dory, Quin noted for a sauce to this fish, iii. 335.

Joints, hair in its growth sends forth branches at the joints, i. 277.

Jonelin has obliged the curious with the first accurate description of the form and nature of the sable, ii. 239.

Ireland not infested with wolves, ii. 210; frogs designedly introduced into that kingdom some years before the Norway rat, 291; that rat put a stop to their increase, and the frog is once more almost extinct in that kingdom, 292; the mole utterly a stranger there, 305.

Iron extracted from all the substances upon earth, i. 49.

Isatis, an animal very common in all the northern countries bordering upon the icy sea, and seldom found in warm climates; description; burrows like the fox, and when with young, the female retires to her kennel in the same manner as the fox; its kennel very narrow, and extremely deep, has many outlets; manner of coupling, time of gestation, and number of young, all similar to what is found in the fox; brings forth at the end of May, or the beginning of June; considered as between the dog and the fox; changes its colour, and is at one time brown, at another white; some naturally blue, which never change colour; its fur is two inches long; of no value except the animal is killed in winter; time in which it is called the *crost-fox*, ii. 221, 222.

Isinglass, serviceable in medicine, and many arts; very great sums yearly expended upon this article of commerce; manner of making it; principally furnished from Russia, where great quantities are prepared suprisingly cheap; Mr. Jackson found out a method of making a glue that answered the purposes of isinglass, iii. 388.

Islands, new, formed in two ways; either suddenly by the action of subterraneous fires, or more slowly by the deposition of mud, carried down by rivers, and stopped by some accident; thirteen islands in the Mediterranean appearing at once emerging from the water; one new formed in the year 1720 near that of Tercera; formed at the mouths of many rivers, and how; a beautiful and large one formed at the mouth of the river Nanquin, in China, not less than sixty miles long, and about twenty broad, i. 76 to 80; appear, at first, infinitely greater than they naturally are; seem to travel to the shore, and represent a wood; the scene then shifted, represents curious figures, ships with sails, streamers, and flags, antique elevated castles, and at length vanish into nothing, 222, 223.

Ismael, (*Sheque*) in his time the Arabians first began the management of horses, ii. 9.

Ispahan, the prince's messengers go on foot thirty-six leagues in fourteen hours, i. 292.

Italy, the horses there have a particular aptitude to prance, ii. 14.

Jucutan, a peninsula in the Gulph of Mexico, formerly a part of the sea, i. 161.

Juda-goat common in Guinea, Angola, and all along the coasts of Africa, not much larger than a hare, ii. 69.

Jugular fish, name given to that fish which has the ventral fins placed more forward than the pectoral, iii. 398.

Julian's Bay (*St.*) an American harbour, forty-nine degrees south of the line; Ferdinand Magellan happened to winter in it, i. 371.

Juniper, its shade was fatal, if we credit the ancients, i. 189; the Laplanders drink water in which these berries have been infused, 347.

Ivory, the tusks of the babyrouessa are a very fine ivory, smoother and whiter than that of the elephant, but not so hard and serviceable, ii. 143; that of the morse more esteemed than that of the elephant, being whiter and harder, 353; almost all our ivory comes from Africa, where the greatest part is found in the forests; the tusks of the Mammoth converted to purposes of ivory; fossil bones found in Peru and the Brazils, which when cut and polished, appear in every respect similar to ivory, 407, 408; teeth of the narwhale far surpass ivory in all its qualities, iii. 351.

Justinian, the emperor, till his time the sea was open to all nations, i. 136.

Ivy-berries, showers of them raised by tempests in one country, and falling in another, i. 224.

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Kabassou, or cataphractus, one of the largest kinds of the armadillo, ii. 327.

Kamsehatka, description of its natives, i. 346.

Kangaroo, an animal first discovered and described by Mr. Banks, iii. 30.

Keratophites, among the coralline fungi, iv. 327.

Kermes, an insect of great use in medicine and dying; its description; the difference of the male from the female; the harvest of the kermes greater or less in proportion to the severity of the winter; women gather them before sun-rising, tearing them off with their nails, iv. 299, 300.

Kestrel, a bird of the generous breed of hawks, iii. 99.

Kevel, name of a second variety of gazelles, made by Mr. Buffon, ii. 76.

Kilda, (*St.*) a rocky island; its shores to the west six hundred fathom perpendicular above the surface of the sea, i. 158; the inhabitants consume annually near twenty-three thousand young gannets, and a great quantity of their eggs, iii. 278; its rocks more than three quarters of a mile high, 281.

Killer, a cetaceous animal of surprising strength, which attacks the whale, iii. 346.

Kinds of animals not actually distinguished by horns, colour, position of the ears, or fineness of hair, ii. 69; difficult to fix precise boundaries between the goat kind and the deer; the gazelles form a distinct kind, 75; all of the deer kind have no gall-bladder, 87.

Kine, in Iceland, are without horns, ii. 46.

King, a question in schools, which man most happy, the beggar by night, and king by day; or the beggar by day, and king by night? i. 305, 306.

King-fisher, a remarkable bird ; its description ; one of the most rapacious little animals that skims the deep ; places it frequents, and how it takes its prey ; the plumage a beautiful variety of brilliant colours ; instances of credulity with respect to this bird ; its nest, or rather hole, very different from that described by the ancients ; instances of the credulity of mankind with respect to this bird ; feeds upon fish in that hole ; foetid from the remains of fish ; the king-fisher is found with from five to nine eggs, which the female continues to hatch ; though disturbed and robbed, she returns and lays again ; Reaumur's account of this ; season for excluding the brood ; the male faithful beyond the turtle, brings the female large provisions of fish, and keeps her plump and fat ; he used to twitter before, now enters the nest quietly and privately ; the young hatched in twenty days ; differ in their size and beauty, iii. 314 to 318.

King-fisher, the *Haleyon*, Cicero has written a long poem in praise of this bird, of which but two lines remain ; the emperor Gordian has also written a long poem on it, nothing of which is left ; St. Ambrose's credulity concerning this bird ; fables the modern vulgar have of it ; its flesh unfit to be eaten, and its beautiful plumage preserves its lustre longer than any other, iii. 316 to 318.

Kircher, his calculation of the heights of the mountains are incredible, and why, i. 92 ; has set the voices of birds to music, iii. 111.

Kite, from the greatest height darts down on its prey with unerring aim, iii. 40 ; one of the baser race of hawks, 98 ; distinguished by its forked tail, and slow floating motion ; seems ever upon the wing, and to make no effort in flying ; lives upon accidental carnage, every bird in the air being able to make its retreat from it ; small birds wounded, or straying chickens, it seizes with rapacity ; of all birds, the good housewife's greatest tormentor and aversion, 103 ; used for training falcons, and how lured with the great horned owl, when caught for that purpose, 113.

Kitten, of all young animals none more prettily playful, ii. 147.

Klein, his method of classing animals, i. 391.

Knot, small bird of the crane kind, iii. 253 ; a bird of passage, 256.

Kraken, all that has been said of this great fish seems fictitious, yet there is a possibility of its existence, iii. 340.

Krantz's account of the origin and formation of the ice-mountains of Greenland, i. 143.

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Labrus, the wrasse, description of this fish, iii. 404.

Labyrinth of Candia a subterranean wonder, supposed the work of art, i. 42.

Labyrinth, convolutions in the windpipe and lungs of some birds, iii. 42.

Lama, the camel of the new world ; countries where found ; their flesh an excellent food ; their hair, or rather wool, spun into beautiful cloathing ; carry their burdens over precipices and craggy rocks, where men can scarce accompany them ; often dies under, but never resists his driver's cruelty, description and age ; manner of coupling ; its food ; exceeds the camel in temperance ; requires little water, being supplied with quantities of saliva, the only offensive weapon it has to testify its resentment ; the Indians say, where this saliva falls it will, from its acrimonious nature, burn the skill, or cause dangerous eruptions ; colour and wool ; habits and marks of agility in the state of nature ; the stag scarcely more swift, or the goat a better climber ; seems the largest of the camel kind in America ; the natives hunt the wild lama for its fleece ; a smaller weaker sort of the camel kind, called also guanacoe and paco ; the manufacture of stuffs, carpets, and quilts, made of the wool of the paco, form a considerable branch of commerce in South America, and might usefully be extended to Europe, iii. 10 to 13.

Lambs, how to be produced all the year round, i. 414 ; the third an ewe brings forth supposed the best, ii. 61.

Lamprey, a fish every way resembling the lamprey, was possessed of the numbing quality of the torpedo ; people will not venture to touch those of Ireland ; a species very different from ours served up as a delicacy among the modern Romans, doubtful whether it be the murena of the ancients, which our lamprey is

not; ours differently estimated according to the season; those of the river Severn the most delicate of all fish; description of this fish's extraordinary power of adhering to stones; instance of it; Muralto giving the anatomy of this fish makes no mention of the lungs, for which it has absolute necessity to breathe in the air; its time of leaving the sea annually, in order to spawn, is the beginning of spring; after a few months it returns to the sea; peculiar preparation for spawning; the young from eggs; the female remains at the place where produced; has her family playing about her, and conducts them in triumph to the ocean; its food; some not having sufficient strength to return, continue in fresh water till they die; a single brood the extent of the female's fertility, two years being the limits of her existence; very indifferent eating at the approach of hot weather; best season for them in the months of March, April, and May; are usually taken in nets with salmon, sometimes in baskets at the bottom of the river; old custom for the city of Gloucester annually to present the king with a lamprey-pie; a senator of Rome used to throw into the ponds such of his slaves as displeased him, to feed the lampreys, iii. 380 to 384.

Lands, new, produced from the sea, and in what manner, i. 161.

Lanner, bird of the generous breed of hawks, now little known in Europe, iii. 99.

Lapland, its division, ii. 120; mountains there preferred to the woods; the country abounds more than others with marshy bottoms and weedy lakes; gnats and gadflies formidable there, 121; the manner of travelling in it; Laplanders castrate the rein-deer with their teeth, 124, 125; the wolf never attacks a rein-deer that is haltered, and why, 211; the isatis found in this country, 221; in the forests, squirrels observed to change their habitation; they remove in numbers from one country to another, 273.

Laplanders, one of the first distinct races of men round the polar regions; description of their persons and manners; have in every family a drum for consulting the devil; Gustavus Adolphus attempted in vain to form a regiment of Laplanders; use skates to run and slide, and how; are all hunters; offer their wives and daughters to strangers, i. 346 to 348; manner of life, 120; wants supplied, and riches derived from the rein-deer; daub their faces with pitch mixed with milk, to shield their skins from the dreadful depredations of the gnats, ii. 121; boil milk, with wood-sorrel, and keep it in casks under ground to be eaten in winter, 127; when the lemmings draw up to fight they form ominous prognostics from their arrangement, 303; happy when an army of lemmings comes down among them; they then feast upon their flesh, which cats and dogs detest, 304.

Lapwing, a small bird of the crane kind, iii. 253; its arts to lead off men and dogs from their nests; their seasons of courtship, 258.

Lark, bird of the sparrow kind, iii. 196; the sky, the wood, or the tit lark, distinguishable from other little birds by length of heel, and loud song; nest, number of eggs, and habits; when risen to an imperceptible height does not lose sight of its nest, either ascending or descending, 207; those that remain with us the year throughout; are birds of passage in Sweden, 198, 199.

Lark, (*Sea*) a small bird of the crane kind, iii. 253; breeds in this country, 257

Lava, matter discharged by the eruptions of volcanoes, i. 64.

Laughter, in what manner produced, i. 280.

Launce, description of this fish, iii. 402.

Lauricocha, a lake wherein the river Amazons has its source, i. 126.

Lawrence, (*St.*) a river; its rise and source; receives about forty rivers, i. 127; its cataract, 131.

Law's, one in the Orkney islands entitling any person that kills an eagle to a heu from every house in the parish where killed, iii. 84.

Layer, the impression on the place where the stag has lain, ii. 98.

Layers of the earth regularly disposed, but not of the same kind in every place; enumeration of layers of earth in a well dug at Amsterdam, and of another dug at Marly; a layer, as far as it extends, always maintains the same thickness; proceeding to considerable depths, every layer is thicker; are sometimes very extensive, and often found to spread over a space of some leagues in circumference, i. 39, 40; remarkable layers of earth round the city of Modena, 164.

Lead-minc, teeth of the elephant found in one in Flintshire, ii. 407.

Leather called shammoi, made of the skin of that animal, and also from those of the tame goat, the sheep, and the deer, ii. 74.

Leather-harness devoured by the jackal, ii. 219

Leaves, two of a fig-tree, by experiment, imbibed from the earth two ounces of water in five hours and a half, i. 115.

Leech, different kinds; its description; takes a large quantity of food; has no anus or passage to eject it from the body when digested; in what it differs from the rest of the reptile tribe; produces forty or fifty at a birth; never breeds in confinement; the leech used in medicine; a girl of nine years old killed by leeches; best way of applying leeches, iv. 193 to 196.

Legs, a man without them performed astonishing feats of dexterity, ii. 390.

Leming, a bold animal of the rat kind, native of Scandinavia; often pours down in myriads from the northern mountains, and, like a pestilence, destroys all the productions of the earth; they are often seen covering the ground a mile broad; Laplanders believe they drop from the clouds; their description; they move, in a square, forward by night, and lying still by day; whither their motions are turned nothing can stop them; a fire, a deep well, a torrent, does not turn them out of their direction; they never retreat; interrupted by a host across a river, they go over it; stopped by a stack of hay or corn, they gnaw their way through; and obstructed by a house they cannot get through, continue before it till they die; eat nothing prepared for human subsistence; never enter a house to destroy provisions; passing through a meadow, destroy it in a short time, and leave it with the appearance of being burnt up and strewed over with ashes; a man imprudently attacking one of them, the animal furiously lies at him, barking something like a puppy, fastens, and does not easily quit its hold; their leader forced out of the line after a long defence, and separated from the rest, sets up a plaintive cry, not of anger, and hangs itself on the fork of a tree; they destroy and devour each other; after incredible devastations they separate into armies, opposed with deadly hatred, and move along the coasts of the larger lakes and rivers; the Laplanders form prognostics from the manner of their arrangement; what prognostics; the divisions continue their engagements and animosity until one party be overcome, then they disappear; and it is supposed, that having nothing to subsist on they devour each other; their carcases sometimes infect the air for miles round, and produce malignant disorders; they seem also to infect the plants, the cattle often dying in the places where they passed; the male larger, and more beautifully spotted than the female; are extremely prolific; breeding does not hinder their march, some carrying one young in their mouth, and another on their back; are greatly preyed upon by the ermine, and even by the rein-deer; dogs and cats detest their flesh, but the Laplanders esteem it good eating, and devour it greedily, ii. 301 to 304.

Leo, the emperor, granted the nations in possession of the shore the sole right of fishing before their respective territories, i. 136.

Leopard, the American, is neither so fierce nor so valiant as that of Africa and Asia, i. 410; the leopard will not fly at the approach of the lion, ii. 160; the great panther and the leopard or panther of Senegal; differences between these animals, 174.

Lepadogaster, description of this fish, iii. 402.

Leprosy, in what manner the Indians endeavour to prevent the Arabian leprosy, or the elephantiasis; a disease to which man and the elephant are equally subject, ii. 398.

Lerót, the middle dormouse, according to Mr. Buffon, ii. 297.

Libella, the dragon-fly; general characteristics; eggs; food of the young; how they prepare to change from the reptile to the flying state; description; the strongest and most courageous of all winged insects; their appetite so great that they have been seen to devour three times their own size in the capture of a single hour; the business of impregnation how performed, iv. 197 to 201.

Liboya, the greatest of the serpent kind, iv. 125.

Lichen rangiferinus, the food of the rein-deer, a moss in Lapland of two kinds, the white in the fields, and the black on the trees, ii. 120, 123.

Life, formerly supposed producible only by oviparous and viviparous genera-

tion, but later discoveries induce many to doubt whether animal life may not be produced merely from putrefaction, i. 242 ; the beginning of our lives, as well as the end, is marked with anguish, 259 ; that of infants very precarious till the age of three or four ; instances of it, 268 ; the duration of life in general nearly the same in most countries, 340 341 ; the most useless and contemptible, of all others the most difficult to destroy, iv. 314.

Light, the hand exposed to broad day-light some time, then immediately snatched into a dark room, will be luminous, and remain so for some time, and why ; dangerous to the sight to look steadily upon bright and luminous objects, and why ; such persons as read or write for any continuance should choose a moderate light, i. 317.

Light sent forth by the glow-worm, how produced hitherto inexplicable, iv. 297 ; sent forth by the star-fish, resembles that of phosphorous, 315.

Lightning is an electrical flash produced by the opposition of two clouds, i. 215 ; of the torrid zone not so fatal or so dangerous as with us, otherwise those regions would be uninhabitable, 218 ; flashing without noise, illuminates the sky all round in the torrid zone, 217.

Lights, northern lights illuminate half the hemisphere, i. 217.

Limbs, of the inhabitants near the poles are sometimes frozen and drop off, i. 222 ; some animals live without, and often are seen to reproduce them, iv. 313.

Lime, manner of making it in Persia, i. 55.

Line, upon the approach of the winter months under the line, the whole horizon seems wrapt in a muddy cloud, i. 217 ; in America, all that part of the continent which lies under the line is cool and pleasant, 357 ; in general, as we approach the line, we find the inhabitants of each country grow browner until the colour deepens into perfect blackness, 358.

Linnæus, the celebrated naturalist, supposes man a native of the tropical climates, and only a sojourner more to the north ; argument to prove the contrary, i. 360 ; his method of classing animals, 393 ; makes the female of the bat a *primas*, to rank in the same order with man, ii. 330.

Linnet, a bird of the sparrow kind, iii. 197 ; taught to whistle a long and regular tune, 213.

Lion, to compare the strength of the lion with that of man, it should be considered that the claws of this animal give a false idea of its power, ascribing to its force what is the effect of its arms, i. 291 ; does not willingly attack the horse, and only when compelled by the keenest hunger ; combats between a lion and a horse in Italy ; the lion stunned and left sprawling, the horse escapes, but the lion succeeding, sticks to its prey, and tears the horse to pieces instantly ; leaps twenty feet at a spring, 403 to 405 ; produced under the burning sun of Africa, is the most terrible and undaunted creature ; he degenerates when removed from the torrid zone, ii. 153 ; description of this noble animal ; a single lion of the desert often attacks an entire caravan ; he crouches on his belly, and continues so with patient expectation, until his prey comes within a proper distance ; the female has no mane ; his roaring is so loud, that when heard in the night, and re-echoed by the mountains, it resembles distant thunder ; his most usual prey are gazelles and monkeys, 155 to 159 ; in countries tolerably inhabited, the lion is cowardly, and often scared by the cries of women and children, 147 ; attends to the call of the jackal, 220.

Lions, those of mount Atlas have not the strength or ferocity of those of Bil-dulgerid or Zaara ; species of this animal diminishing daily ; Mr. Shaw observes, the Romans carried fifty times as many lions from Lybia in one year, for their amphitheatres, as are in the whole country at this time ; the same remark made with regard to Turkey, Persia, and the Indies, where lions diminish in their number daily ; those inhabiting the peopled countries of Morocco, or India, scared away with a shout ; the keepers play with him, plague and chastise him, without a cause, he bears it with composure ; but his anger once excited, the consequences are terrible ; an instance from Labat ; numberless accounts assure his anger noble, his courage magnanimous, and his natural ferocity seldom exerted against his benefactors ; he has spared the lives of those thrown to be devoured by him, afforded them part of his subsistence, and sometimes abstains from food himself to

support them; necessity alone makes him cruel; the manner of hunting him by Hottentots and others; reported that he sustains hunger a long time, but thirst he cannot support; some believe him in a continual fever; he drinks as often as he finds water, and laps it; he requires about fifteen pounds of raw flesh in a day, he rather hunts for a fresh spoil than returns to that he had before; his breath is offensive, and his urine insupportable; horses for hunting them of that sort called charossi, all others fly at the sight of him, ii. 154 to 160; the lion prefers the flesh of camels to other food; is also fond of that of young elephants; when old, finding men and quadrupeds together, he attacks the latter, and never meddles with men, unless provoked; manner of copulation, time of gestation, number brought forth, and time taken to come to perfection, all known; his internal structure in almost every respect resembles that of a cat; a lion in the Tower of London above seventy years; the lioness fearing her retreat discovered, hides her tracks by running back, or brushing them out with her tail; becomes terrible with young ones to provide for; lions, incited by desire, fight bloody battles, till one becomes victorious over the rest; the size of the lion between three and four feet; the female, in all dimensions, about one-third less; there are properly no lions in America; the *puma* has received the name of the *American lion*, but when compared, is a very contemptible animal; the ancients all concurred in denominating the lion the king of the beasts, 161 to 163.

Lion-cat, or *Angora cat*, a beautiful animal, a native of Syria and Persia, ii. 152, 153.

Lion (Sea) described in Anson's voyages, regarded as the largest of the seal family, ii. 352.

Lipidopus, the garter fish, its description, iii. 403.

Lips, those of the hare and of the squirrel continually move, whether sleeping or waking, ii. 257.

Litters, in all animals, intermediate litters most fruitful; first and last generally produce fewest and weakest of the kind, i. 413.

Littorales, Latin name for those shells that are cast upon shore, iv. 39.

Liver of a shark affords three or four quarts of oil, iii. 369.

Lizards, along the coasts of Guinea their flesh esteemed a delicacy, ii. 198; differ from every other class of animals and from each other, iv. 92 to 95; whence the greatest distinction; general characteristics; the water-kind changes its skin every fourth or fifth day; sprinkled with salt, the whole body emits a viscons liquor, and the lizard dies in three minutes in great agonies; whole of the kind sustain the want of food in a surprising manner, 110.

Lizard (Chalcydou) of Aldrovandus described, iv. 116.

Lizard (flying) of Java, account of it by Gentil, iv. 115, 116.

Loach, a description of this fish, iii. 404.

Lobster, a ruminating fish, ii. 39; very voracious, though without warmth in its body, or red blood in its veins; whatever it seizes upon and has life perishes, however well defended; they devour each other, and in some measure eat themselves; changing their shell and stomach every year, the old stomach is the first morsel to glut the new; at first sight the head may be mistaken for the tail; its description; the food of the young; the moulting season; how they change their shells; many die under this operation; speedy growth of the new shell; and of itself after the change; the claws of unequal magnitude, and why; at certain seasons they never meet without an engagement; wonders this extraordinary creature offers to the imagination; are endowed with a vital principle that furnishes out such limbs as have been cut away; varieties of this animal with differences in the claws, little in the habits or conformation; the shell black when taken, but turns red by boiling; common way of taking the lobster, iv. 7 to 12.

Locust, the great brown locust seen in several parts of England in 1748; in some southern kingdoms they are still formidable; description of this insect; in what manner they take the field; their devastations; are still more noxious when dead; instance of it; account of their devastations in Russia, Poland, Lithuania, and Barbary; transformations; eaten by the natives in many kingdoms of the East, and caught in small nets for that purpose; their taste; are considered as a great delicacy in Tonquin, by the rich and the poor; must have been a com-

mon food with the Jews ; description of the great West Indian locust, the most formidable, iv. 211 to 215.

Loir, the great dormouse, so called by Mr. Buffon, ii. 297.

Longevity, persons remarkable for it, i. 339, 340.

Lori, the longest of all animals in proportion to its size ; description ; a native of the island of Ceylon, ii. 385.

Loricaria, description of this fish, iii. 403.

Lories, a kind of parrot, iii. 175.

Louse, its description ; whether distinguished by the parts of generation into males and females, not yet discovered ; the lousy disease frequent among the ancients, many of whom died of this disorder, iv. 175 to 177.

Louse, (*wood*) the description ; of great use in medicine, iv. 183, 184.

Lowenhoëk, his opinion about the rudiments of animals, i. 240.

Luminous appearance of the waves in the night, the cause, i. 144.

Lump-fish, its description ; flung into a pail of water, will stick so close to the bottom, that on taking the fish by the tail, the pail and several gallons of water may be lifted ; their flesh, iii. 390, 391.

Lungs, animals before birth make no use of their lungs, ii. 347 ; no anatomist has described the lungs of the lamprey, iii. 381 ; caterpillars have eighteen lungs, and live several days in the exhausted receiver of the air-pump, iv. 232.

Lybia, its inhabitants use ostriches as horses ; also at Joar ; instance of it at the factory of Podore, iii. 68.

Liboya of Surinam, a kind of serpent, thirty-six feet long, iv. 124.

Lynx, distinguished from the ounce, and described ; first striking distinction between it and those of the panther kind is the tail ; each hair of this animal is of three different colours ; it is not above the size of the ounce ; chiefly met with in the cold countries bordering on the pole, in the north of Germany, Lithuania, Muscovy, Siberia, and North America ; those of the New Continent are smaller than in Europe ; this animal has been called the *lupus cervarius* ; but for what reason hard to guess ; in its nature it exactly resembles the cat, is bigger, and near two feet long, is also bolder and fiercer ; more delicate than the cat ; resembles the wolf in nothing except its cry ; several reports of the lynx, propagated by ignorance or imposture, ii. 176 to 181.

Lyster, strangeness of his theory to explain the invariable motion of winds, i. 197.

Lythophytes and coralline substances, iv. 324.

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Macaguo, a kind of monkey described by Mr. Buffon, ii. 381.

Maccau, the large kind of parrot, the size of a raven, iii. 175.

Manchineel-tree, in America, its shade fatal, i. 189 ; no plant will grow under it, i. 233.

Machines, the invention of many has rendered human strength less valuable, i. 295.

Mackarel produces five hundred thousand eggs in one season, iii. 333 ; described, 400 ; its growth, 417.

Madagascar, its natives desire nothing so ardently as to prostitute their wives or daughters to strangers, and for the most trifling advantages, i. 270 ; the great bat of that island described, ii. 332.

Madder. See *Blood*, i. 336.

Madness, produced by want of sleep, i. 304 ; cured by music, and also caused by it. See *Henry IV.* i. 323.

Maelstrom, Dutch name for a whirlpool ; one upon the coast of Norway, considered as most dreadful and destructive ; the body of water forming this whirlpool extended in a circle of above thirteen miles, i. 155, 156.

Magellan, (*Ferdinand*) a Portuguese of noble extraction, first discovered the gigantic race of mankind towards the extremity of South America ; account of this discovery ; he was slain upon one of the Molucca islands, i. 371.

Magni, an Italian traveller, discovered the remarkable grotto of Antiparos, in the Archipelago, i. 45.

Magot of Buffon, the *Cynocephalus*, the last of the ape kind, described, ii. 367.

Magpie, thievish ; rings found in the nest of a tame magpie, iii. 149 ; habits and food ; when satisfied for the present it lays up the remainder for another time ; places where it builds, and nest described ; number of eggs in its domestic state ; preserves its natural character strictly ; foolish custom of cutting its tongue to teach it to speak ; puts the animal to pain, and baulks the intention, 157 to 159.

Mahometans, considering the hare as an unclean animal, religiously abstain from its flesh, ii. 263.

Maimon, the last of the baboons, Edwards calls it the *pigtail* ; its description ; native of Sumatra ; does not well endure the rigours of our climate, ii. 371.

Maire, (*James Le*) a traveller who confirms the existence of giants in America, i. 372.

Maki, the last of the monkey kind, ii. 357 ; their description ; many different kinds of these animals, 381 to 383.

Malabar, land and sea breezes upon those coasts, i. 202.

Malacopterigii, the barbarous Greek name given to the soft-finned fish, the prickly-finned sort termed *Acanthropterigii*, iii. 397.

Malahallo, a very considerable volcano in South America, i. 62.

Malbranche, grounds his beautiful theory of monstrous productions upon a famous instance related by him, and some theory from which he deduces the effects of imagination upon the fœtus, i. 363.

Malbrouk, a monkey of the ancient continent ; its description ; the Brahmans have hospitals for such as are sick or disabled, ii. 381.

Maldivia Islands have land in them at one time covered with water, and at another free, i. 162.

Mallard, a kind of duck, iii. 308 ; with very particular faculties for calling, 311.

Malpighi, his famous experiment upon the stigmata of caterpillars, iv. 232.

Mammoth, its tusks, which are used as ivory, and supposed to belong to the elephant, often weigh four hundred pounds, ii. 407.

Man endures a greater variety of climates than the lower orders are able to do, and why, i. 185 ; on comparing the minute differences of mankind, it will be found that there is scarce one nation upon earth that entirely resembles another ; differences in his species less than in animals, and rather taken from the tincture of the skin than variety of figure ; there are not in the world above six distinct varieties in the race of men ; first race in the popular regions, deep brown, short, oddly shaped, savage ; second, the Tartar race, olive-coloured, middle-sized, ugly, robust ; third, the southern Asiatics, dark olive, slender shaped, straight black hair, feeble ; fourth, the negroes of Africa, black, smooth skin, woolly hair, well shaped ; fifth, the Americans, copper colour, straight black hair, small eyes, slight limbed, not strong ; sixth, the Europeans and bordering nations, white and of different tints, fine hair, large limbed, vigorous, 345 to 356 ; may be called the animal of every climate, 235 ; intended naturally to be white, 357 ; white men resemble our common parent more than the rest of his children ; a native of the tropical climates, and only a sojourner more to the north, according to Linnæus ; argument sufficient to prove the contrary, 360, 361 ; marriageable in the warm climates of India at twelve and thirteen years of age, 268 ; just come into the world gives a picture of complete imbecility, 259 ; a vain man ventures to excite an auditor's attention at the risk of incurring his dislike, 284 ; as man has a superiority of powers over other animals, so is he proportionably inferior to them in his necessities ; nature has made him subject to more wants and infirmities than other creatures, but all these wants seem given to multiply the number of his enjoyments ; and in what manner, 297 ; first sensations of a man newly brought into existence, and the steps by which he arrives at reality, pointed out by Mr. Buffon, 332 ; the only animal that supports himself perfectly erect ; the buttock in man different from all other animals ; man's feet also different from those of other animals, the ape's not excepted ; the nails less in man than in any animal, 287, 288 ; said to be tall when from five feet eight inches to six feet high, 289 ; probability that men have been, in all ages, much of the same size they are at present, 374 ; proportionably stronger for his size than any other animal ; to compare the strength of the lion with that of man, it must be considered the claws of the animal give a false idea of its power, and ascribe to its force the effects of its arms ; another manner of

comparing the strength of man with that of animals, is by the weights which either can carry; *Dr. Desaguliers* speaks of a man able to raise two thousand pounds, by distributing the weights in such a manner that every part of his body bore its share, 291; exercised in running outstrips horses; a stout walker, in a journey, walks down a horse; those employed as messengers at *Ispahan* in *Persia*, runners by profession, go thirty-six leagues in fourteen hours, 292; every animal endures the want of sleep and hunger with less injury to health than man, 297; he cannot, uninjured, live many days without eating, drinking, and sleeping, 298; one said to live without food for seven days, 302; requires sleep for double motives, the refreshment of the mental as well as the bodily frame, 303; more difficult for man than any other animal to procure sleep, 304; has a lump upon the windpipe not to be seen in women, 285; a young man deaf and dumb from his birth knew nothing of death, and never thought of it till the age of twenty-four, when he began to speak all of a sudden, 326; account of a man ruminating, ii. 40; in those countries where men are most barbarous and stupid, their brutes are most active and sagacious, 380; one without hands or legs, by practice used his stumps for the most convenient purposes, and performed astonishing feats of dexterity, 390; man dies under wounds which a quadruped or bird could easily survive, iv. 312.

Manufactures, the woollen manufacture not carried on here till several ages after sheep were propagated in England; unavailing efforts of our kings to introduce and preserve it; the *Flemings* possessed the art to a superior degree; the inhabitants of the *Netherlands* improved us in this art, and when; the woollen-manufacture supposed for some time decaying among us, ii. 60; of stuffs of the wool of the *pacos*, a considerable branch of commerce in *South America*, iii. 13.

Manati, may indiscriminately be the lust of beasts, or the first of fishes; its description; the female has breasts placed forward like those of women; holds her young ones with her paws to her bosom, where it sticks and accompanies her wherever she goes; the tongue so short, some have pretended it has none; never entirely leaves the water; only advances the head out of the stream to reach the grass on the river sides; it feeds entirely on vegetables; places where found; graze among turtles and other crustaceous fishes, giving or fearing no disturbance; unmolested they keep together in large companies, and surround their young; bring forth in autumn; and supposed to go with young eighteen months; the *manati* has no voice nor cry; its intestines are longer in proportion than those of any other creature, the horse excepted; the fat which lies under the skin, exposed to the sun, has a fine smell and taste, and exceeds the fat of any sea animal; the heat of the sun does not make it rancid; it tastes like the oil of sweet almonds, and serves every way instead of butter; any quantity may be taken inwardly, having no other effect than to keep the body open; the fat of the tail boiled, more delicate than the former; the lean takes a long time in boiling, and eats like beef; may be kept a long time in the hottest days without tainting; the fat of the young like pork, and the lean like veal; upon the whole, this animal's flesh resembles turtle, ii. 353, 355.

Mandril, the largest of the baboon kind; its description; when displeased, weeps like a child; is a native of the *Gold Coast*, ii. 371.

Mangabey, a monkey of the ancient continent; its description, ii. 381.

Mangrove-tree, that grows down in the water of the *Senegal* river, i. 129.

Manks-puffin, or *Coulterneb*, a small water-fowl, described, iii. 292, 296.

Marcasites; their composition; experiment by way of proof, i. 50.

Mares, their exportation prohibited by law in *Arabia*, ii. 12; studs in *Persia* of ten thousand white mares, with hoofs so hard that shoeing is unnecessary, 13; a law in *England* prohibiting the exportation of mares and stallions; and one similar to this obtained so early as the time of *Athelstan*, 20.

Mariquina, a monkey of the *sagoin* kind, with a mane round the neck, and a bunch of hair at the end of the tail, like a lion, ii. 383.

Marmose, only differs in size from the opossum, being less; instead of the bag to receive the young, has only two longitudinal folds, within which the premature young continue to suck; when first produced, not above the size of a bean, but stick to the teat until they arrive at maturity, ii. 388, 389.

Marmout, or *Marmotte*, a ruminating animal, ii. 39; a native of the *Alps*; its

description; is easily tamed, readily taught to dance, wield a stick, and obey the voice of its master, it has an antipathy to the dog; and when become familiar, and is supported by its master, it attacks and bites the largest mastiff; strength and agility; except its enmity to dogs, lives in friendship with every creature, unless provoked; ludicrous saying that the Savoyards, the only chimney-sweepers of Paris, have learned their art from the marmotte they carry about for show; is apt to gnaw the furniture; other affections of this animal; its food; is cleanly, but has a disagreeable scent; sleeps during winter; though a native of the highest mountains, and where the snow is never wholly melted, yet feels the influence of cold more than any other animal; form of its hole resembles the letter Y; manner of making it; they live together, and work in common to make their habitations snug and convenient; when they venture abroad, one is placed as sentinel upon a lofty rock; Mr. Buffon says it does not sleep during winter, is rather in a torpor, a stagnation of all its faculties; its heat not more than ten degrees above congelation; the flesh said to have a wild taste, and to cause vomiting; countries where it is found; inhabitants of the Alps do not till winter open its hole; produces but once a year, and brings forth three or four at a time; they grow fast, and their lives not above nine or ten years, ii. 275 to 281.

Marriage and consummation of the Indians, the husband at ten years old, and the wife at eight; frequently have children at that age, i. 352.

Mariotte, his experiment proves that water acts as a menstruum upon air, i. 212.

Marrow, spinal, and the brain, the first seen as begun in the embryo, i. 310.

Martin, its description; the most beautiful of all British beasts of prey; its scent a pleasing perfume; the yellow-breasted martin; its fur more valuable than the white-breasted sort; Mr. Buffon supposes them a distinct species; that distinction unnecessary; of all the weasel kind the most pleasing, ii. 236, 237; is fond of honey, 231; seldom meets the wild cat without a combat; the wild cat not a match for the martin; there is scarcely an animal in our woods that will venture to oppose it; kept tame by Gesner and Mr. Buffon; often slept for two days, and then was two or three days without sleeping; the yellow-breasted more common in France than England; in their retreat the female brings forth her young three or four at a time, and they come with their eyes closed; how she compensates for her deficiency of milk; this animal more common in North America than Europe; found in all northern parts of the world, from Siberia to China and Canada; small birds alarm the spot, where the dam keeps her young, and direct the hunter in his pursuit; the white-breasted keeps near houses and villages; the yellow in woods; leads a savage life, 237, 238; its nest generally the tenement of the squirrel, taking possession, and killing the owner, 272; seizes also the flying-squirrel, 275.

Martin, a bird of the swallow tribe, iii. 213.

Mastiff, one of the three descendants of the shepherd's dog; chiefly a native of England; when transported into Denmark becomes the little Danish dog, ii. 191; the Dutch mastiff, 192.

Mastiff-fox, second variety of foxes less than the greyhound-fox, ii. 217.

Maturity, attained to by slow steps, announces a slow march to old age; as true to other animals as to man and vegetable, i. 339; sooner arrived at in India than in Europe, 352.

Maw, in fishes possesses the power of digesting, iii. 325.

Maximin, (*the Emperor*) a prodigy of strength; several instances of it; by birth a Thracian; from being a simple herdsman he rose by the gradation of office until he became Emperor of Rome; was above nine feet in height, and the best proportioned man in the empire; was killed by his own soldiers while sleeping, i. 294, 295.

May-bug, or dorr-beetle, described, iv. 292. See *Beetle*.

Measled hares, distinguished from mountain hares, ii. 262.

Mechanism, which regulates the number of our years, admits no change in its laws, and can be effected only by long fasting, or great excess, i. 340.

Meduuro, the brass helmet dug up there fits a common man, yet is allowed to have been left there at the overthrow of Asdrubal, i. 374.

Media has pastures in its plains excellent for rearing horses, ii. 16.

Mediterranean sea, always receiving, and never discharging water, is no way fuller than before; in what manner some account for this, i. 153; water-spouts seen in it; description of them by Tournefort; solutions offered for this phenomenon by Mr. Buffon and Dr. Stuart, 224, 225; this sea one of the smoothest and most gentle in the world, 155.

Medusa, name given by Linnæus to a small insect, thought the simple food of the Greenland whale, iii. 345.

Meibomius has collected some few remains of ancient music, which do not leave room to regret what is lost, i. 322.

Membrane, the nictitating membrane in birds; veils the eye at pleasure, iii. 40.

Mendip Mines, in Somersetshire, account of them by Mr. Locke, i. 50

Menstruum, that body which is most fluid and penetrating is likely to be the menstruum of one less so; Mariotte's experiment shews that water will act as a menstruum upon air; cold diminishes the force of menstruums, and often promotes evaporation, i. 212.

Merlin, the smallest of the hawk or falcon kind; scarce larger than a thrush; displays a degree of courage rendering him formidable to birds far above his size; kills a partridge or a quail at a single pounce from above, iii. 99.

Metals, the richest in their native state, much less glittering and splendid than useless marcasites; the basest ores are generally the most beautiful to the eye; description of one by Mr. Condamine, i. 49; those trades that deal in their preparations always unwholesome, 118; all pieces swallowed by animals lose part of their weight, and often the extremities of their figure, iii. 64.

Meteors, between the tropics, and near the poles, assume dreadful and various appearances, i. 216; in those countries where the sun exerts the greatest force in raising vapours, there are the greatest quantity of meteors, 217; one of a very uncommon kind, seen by Ulloa, at Quito, 220.

Method, the principal help in natural history; without it little progress made in this science; the most applauded of classing animals; the author's method of classing them; that of describing all things by words alone, a fault that has infected most of our dictionaries, and bodies of arts and sciences; Mr. Locke has observed, that a drawing of an animal taken from life is the best method of advancing natural history, i. 387 to 397.

Mew, said of stags when they cast their heads, ii. 98.

Mice have burrowed in the backs of hogs, while fattening in the sty, without being felt, ii. 134; in 1580, at Hallontide, an army of mice over-run the marshes near Southminster, and eat up the grass to the roots; but soon after they were all devoured by a number of strange-painted owls; the like happened again in Essex about sixty years afterwards, iii. 114.

Mico, the least and most beautiful monkey of the sagoin kind, ii. 383.

Microscope increases the magnitude of an object, and that of its motion also, i. 241; the pupil and humours of the eye of the mole discovered by it, ii. 305.

Migrating fishes, iii. 409. See *Fishes*.

Migration, causes of migration of birds; in what manner they perform them; at what times; rather follow the weather than country, and go on as they perceive the atmosphere more suitable to their wants and dispositions; some birds by migrating make an habitation of every part of the earth; migration of some swallows, and retreat of others into old walls, to avoid the rigour of winter, wrap this subject in great obscurity, iii. 51 to 54; of bees several signs previous to it, iv. 267.

Milk, infants have it in their own breasts, i. 262; sometimes found in the breasts of men as well as in those of women, 286; in carnivorous animals more sparing than in others, 413; of goats medicinal, and not apt to curdle upon the stomach as that of the cow, ii. 66; of the rein-deer thinner than that of the cow, but sweeter and more nourishing, 122; boiled up with wood-sorrel, by the Laplanders, kept in casks under ground, to be eaten in winter, 127; injected into a vein, kills with more certainty than the venom of a viper, iv. 139.

Millepedes multiplied by being cut in pieces, i. 243.

Milo, an instance of his strength when stood upright, i. 294.

Milton makes Satan personate the cormorant, a most nauseous bird, iii. 275.

Minerals, mere inactive and insensible bodies, i. 232.

Miners first become paralytic, then die consumptive, for the trifling reward of seven-pence a day, i. 51; peculiar contrivance for to supply light for their operations, 53.

Mines, the deepest that at Cottberg in Hungary, not more than three thousand feet deep, i. 36; a coal-mine of the North of England said to be eleven hundred yards deep, 48; air different in them, proportionably as the magazines of fire lay nearer the centre; other causes of this difference; Mendip lead-mines in Somersetshire; their description, 49, 51; mines of coal generally less noxious than those of tin; tin than those of copper; but none are so dreadfully destructive as those of quicksilver; deplorable infirmities of workmen in the mines near the village of Idra, 51; metallic, often destroys all vegetation by their volatile corrosive fumes; salt mines naturally cold, 54; natives of countries abounding in mines too often experience the noxious effects of their vicinity, 188; in a lead-mine in Flintshire were found two grinding-teeth and part of the tusk of an elephant at forty-two yards depth, ii. 407.

Mingrelians among the sixth variety of the human species, described, i. 355.

Mire-drum, the bittern, described, iii. 242. See *Bittern*.

Mistletoe, a plant, thought propagated by seeds voided by birds, iii. 197.

Mississippi, a great river in North America; its source and length, i. 127.

Mists continually rise upon the approach of the winter months under the line, i. 217; called frost smoke; raises blisters on the body in the regions round the poles, 222.

Mite-fly, not found in Lapland, ii. 126.

Miume, a river in America; enormous skeletons lately discovered near it, ii. 407.

Mock-bird, description of the American mock-bird; its habits; can assume the tone of every animal in the wood, from the wolf to the raven, iii. 202.

Mock-suns, meteors and other phænomena in the northern regions, i. 217.

Mococo, first of the maki-kind, which is the last of the monkeys; its description; a native of Madagascar; its qualities, ii. 334, 335; eats its own tail, iii. 22.

Modena, a city in Italy; its remarkable wells; other rarities round it, i. 164.

Mould, black, or garden-earth, the first layer on the surface of the globe; is formed from animal and vegetable bodies decayed; soil fertile in proportion to the quantity that putrified mould bears to the gravelly mixture; and as the former predominates, so far is the vegetation upon it more luxuriant, i. 36, 37.

Mole, a ruminating insect, or seemingly so, ii. 39; no quadruped fatter, none with a more sleek, glossy skin; an utter stranger in Ireland; formed to live under the earth; its description; the ancients, and some moderns, of opinion that the mole was blind, but Derham, by a microscope, discovered all the parts of the eye known in other animals; a mole let loose in the midst of a field, like a ghost on a theatre, instantly sinks into the earth; peculiar advantage of the smallness of its eyes; when once buried in the earth, it seldom stirs out; it chooses the looser softer grounds; chiefly preys upon worms and insects; is most active and casts up most earth immediately before rain, and in winter before a thaw; in dry weather it seldom forms hillocks; readily evades the pursuit of animals stronger and swifter than itself; their greatest calamity is an inundation, which whenever it happens destroys great numbers of them; description of the mole-hill in which the female has brought forth her young; is scarcely found, except in cultivated countries; the varieties are but few; that of Virginia is black, mixed with a deep purple; that of Poland is white; Agricola says, he saw hats made of mole-skins, the finest and most beautiful imaginable, ii. 304 to 309.

Molossian breed of dogs, and its perfections, set forth by Nemesianus, ii. 196.

Moulting, annually suffered by birds; its effects, iii. 44; artificially accelerated, and how; the manner in which nature performs the operation, 45; moulting season from the end of summer to the middle of autumn, 46.

Molucca Islands, Ferdinand Magellan slain upon one of them, i. 371.

Mona, the *cephus* of the ancients, a monkey of the ancient continent, ii. 381.

Monax, name given to the marmout in Canada, ii. 231.

Mongoz, one of the maki kind, the last of the monkeys; its description, ii. 385.

Monkey, they sometimes fall a prey to the lion in deserts and forests, ii. 159;

one general description will not serve for all the animals of the monkey kind, 357; La Condamine asserts that it would take up a volume to describe the difference of monkeys found along the river of Amazons; and we are sure that every one of these is different from those on the African coast; there is scarcely a country in the tropical climates that does not swarm with them, and scarcely a forest that is not inhabited by a race distinct from all others; those of two cantons never found to mix; of all kinds less than the baboon have less power of doing mischief, and their ferocity diminishes with their size; in their native woods are the pests of other animals, and the masters of the forests where they reside; the tiger, nor the lion, will not venture to dispute dominion with creatures who, from the tops of trees, with impunity carry on an offensive war, and by their agility escape all pursuit; birds have not less to fear from their continual depredations; such being their petulant delight in mischief, that they fling the eggs against the ground when wanting appetite to devour them; one only animal in the forest ventures to oppose them; that is the serpent; large snakes often wind up the trees, where they reside, and happening to surprise them sleeping, swallow them whole, before they can make a defence; they generally inhabit the tops of trees, and the snakes cling to the branches near the bottom; in this manner they are near each other, like enemies in the same field of battle; some suppose their vicinity rather argued mutual friendship; Father Labat has seen them playing their gambols upon those branches on which the snakes were reposing, and jumping over them without receiving any injury; they provoke the snake as the sparrows twitter at a cat; when attacked, they show perfect skill in defending and assisting each other, 372 to 374; they regularly begin hostilities against those who enter their woods; one being wounded the rest come round, put their fingers into the wound, as desirous of sounding its depth; the blood flowing in any quantity some stop it, while others get leaves, chew, and thrust them into the opening; are often killed in numbers before they make a retreat; in this retreat the young are clinging to the back of the female, who jumps away, seemingly unembarrassed by the burden; usual way of taking them alive; skinned and served up at negro-feasts, so like a child, an European is shocked at the sight; the negroes seeing Europeans buy young and tame monkeys, with equal care brought rats to the factors for sale, and were greatly disappointed at finding no purchaser; they carry off what they are able, and destroy ten times more: manner of their plundering; are under a kind of discipline, exercised among themselves; accounts to this purpose by Margrave; one species, by Mr. Buffon, called the ouarine, remarkable for loudness and distinctness of voice; use to which they convert it; are generally together in companies, march in exact order, and obey the voice of some chieftain remarkable for his size and gravity; chief food of the tribe; extraordinary manner of managing an oyster; manner of drawing crabs from the water; no snare, however nicely baited, takes a monkey of the West Indian islands; females bring forth one, and sometimes two at a time; rarely breed when brought into Europe; the male and female never tire of fondling their young, and instructing it with no little assiduity; often severely correct it, if stubborn, or disinclined to profit by their example, 375 to 378; manner of carrying their young in the woods; dexterity in passing from one tree to another, by forming a kind of chain, locking tail to tail, or hand in hand; one amused itself for hours imposing upon the gravity of a cat, and playing its pranks among rabbits; faithful services which Father Carli received from the monkeys in Angola, where he went to convert the savage natives to Christianity; savages of Africa and America suppose monkeys to be men, idle, slothful, rational beings, capable of speech and conversation, but obstinately dumb, for fear of being compelled to labour; monkeys of Africa most expert and entertaining; show a greater degree of cunning and activity; three marks by which monkeys of the new continent are distinguished from those of the old; Mr. Buffon makes but nine species of monkeys belong to the ancient continent, and eleven to the new; their names, with their descriptions; the *red African*, the *patas*, second sort of the ancient continent; the *white nose*, or *moustoc*, of the ancient continent, most beautiful; its description; the *green* of St. Jago, also called *callatrix*, is of the ancient continent; its description; some of the kinds eat their own tail, and seem to feel no pain; the Bramins have hospitals for

those that happen to be sick or disabled; those monkeys of the new continent, with muscular holding tails, are called sapajous, and those with feeble useless tails are called sagouis; the *fox-tailed* monkey; *mukies*, the last of the kind; their description, 379 to 385.

Monkey-bezoar, a factitious conerete, ii. 78. See *Bezoar*.

Monoculus, the arborescent water-flea; its description; are of a blood-red colour; and sometimes in such multitudes on standing-waters as to make them appear all over red, whence the water has been thought turned into blood, iv. 184.

Monsoons, so-called from a famous pilot of that name, who first used them in navigation with success; in that part of the ocean between Africa and India those of the east winds begin in January, and end at the commencement of June; in August, or September, the contrary takes place; and the west winds blow for three or four months; these winds are always subject to their greatest variations as they approach the land, so that on one side of the great peninsula of India the coasts are for near half the year harassed by violent hurricanes, while on the opposite side these dreadful tempests are wholly unknown, i. 200; monsoons prevail at different seasons throughout the Indies, 201.

Monsters, after a catalogue of them. Linnæus particularly adds the slender waists of the women of Europe, i. 362.

Monstrous productions, Father Malbranche's ingenious theory of; remarkable instance related by him, i. 363, 364.

Moose-deer, name in America for the elk, ii. 113; its description, 115.

Mormyrus, description of this fish, iii. 404.

Morocco, the original horses there, much smaller than the Arabian breed, ii. 16.

Moron, a kind of salamander, thought venomous, iv. 107.

Morse, an animal of the seal-kind, might be ranked among the fishes, i. 400; generally frequents the same place where seals reside in; different from the rest in a very particular formation of the teeth; resembles a seal, except that it is much larger; are rarely found but in the frozen regions near the pole; the Greenlanders, who formerly had great plenty, and who made them their principal food, now find them very scarce, and are obliged to toil more assiduously for a subsistence; its teeth generally from two to three feet long; the ivory more esteemed than that of the elephant; the fishers have formerly killed three or four hundred morses at once; their bones are still lying in prodigious quantities along those shores they chiefly frequented, ii. 352, 353.

Moschetoos, excessive torments caused by them, i. 88.

Moss, the only support of the rein-deer in Lapland; of two sorts, ii. 120.

Mother-of-pearl, taken from the pearl oyster, iv. 62.

Moths, difference from butterflies, iv. 245.

Motion keeps the water of the sea sweet, i. 145; destroys numbers of viler creatures, 146; constant motion of the waters of the sea westward, 151; principal difference between serpentine and vermicular motion, iv. 129; some vegetables possessed of motion, 308; and many animals totally without it; in what manner animals of the worm kind move, 310.

Moufflon, the sheep in a savage state, a bold fleet creature, able to escape from greater animals, or oppose the smaller; its description, ii. 58.

Mountains, rising from places once level, i. 20; give direction to the course of the air, 195, how formed, and for what designed; upon our globe considered as angles of small lines in the circumference of a circle, 83, 84; countries most mountainous are most barren and uninhabitable, 88; some valleys are fertilized by earth washed down from great heights, 97; the more extensive the mountain, the greater the river, 86; tops of the highest mountains bare and pointed, and why, 93; tops of land-mountains appear barren and rocky, of sea-mountains verdant and fruitful, 169; the highest in Africa those called *the moon*, giving source to the Niger and Nile in Africa; the greatest and highest under the line; some rise three miles perpendicular above the bottom of the ocean, 86 to 88; highest in Asia; Mount Caucasus makes near approaches to the Andes in South America, 92; burning mountains in Europe, 57; in Asia; in the Molucca Islands; in Africa; in America, those of the Andes; those of Arequipa, Carasso, Malahallo, and Cotopaxi, 62; description of the latter by Ulloa, and an eruption of it, 63.

Mouse, the most feeble and most timid of all quadrupeds, except the Guinea-pig; never leaves its hole but to seek provision; never rendered quite familiar; though fed in a cage retains its apprehensions; no animal has more enemies, and few so incapable of resistance; the owl, eat, snake, hawk, weasel, and rat, destroy them by millions; brings forth at all seasons; and several times in the year; its usual number from six to ten; these in a fortnight strong enough to shift for themselves; places where chiefly found; Aristotle, having put a mouse with young into a vessel of corn, some time after found a hundred and twenty sprung from that original; its life lasts two or three years; the species found in all parts of the ancient continent, and has been exported to the new; although enemies to man, are never found but near those places where he has fixed his habitation; Gesner minutely describes the variety of mouse-traps; long tailed field-mouse; short tailed field-mouse; has a store against winter, a bushel at a time; a description of the shrew-mouse, ii. 294, 297.

Moustoc, or *White-nose*, monkey of the ancient continent, description, ii. 382.

Mouth of hares lined with hair; the only animals that have it on the inside, ii. 260; the snails of the trochus kind have none, iv. 50.

Mucos liquor, giving the joints an easy and ready play, i. 289

Mugil, the mullet, description of this fish, iii. 401.

Mule, reputed barren, though Aristotle says it is sometimes prolific, ii. 24; engendered between a horse and a she-ass, or a jackass and a mare; inhabitants of mountainous countries cannot do without them; how they go down the precipices of the Alps and Andes; a fine mule in Spain worth fifty or sixty guineas; common mule very healthy; lives thirty years and more, 30; in South America destroyed by a bat called vampyre, 334.

Mullus, or *Surmulet*, a description of this fish, iii. 490.

Multivalve shells, third division of shells by Aristotle, iv. 39; two principal kinds of multivalve shell-fish, moving and stationary, 65.

Mummy, formerly a considerable article in medicine; Paræus wrote a treatise on the inefficacy of mummy in physic; counterfeited by the Jews, and how; the method of seeking for mummies; found in the sands of Arabia, in Egypt, in wooden-coffins, or in cloths covered with bitumen, i. 381, 382; remarkable mummy dug up at Auvergne, in France, 383; an injection of petroleum inwardly, and a layer of asphaltum without, suffice to make a mummy, 386.

Muræna, the eel, its description, iii. 402.

Murena of the ancients, not our lamprey, iii. 380.

Muralto, See *Lamprey*, iii. 382.

Muscardin, name of the lesser dormouse, by Mr. Buffon, ii. 297.

Muscles, if we compare the largeness and thickness of our museles with those of any other animal, we shall find that we have the advantage; to judge of the strength of animals by the thickness of their museles, inconclusive, i. 295, 296; those of the hare are strong and without fat, ii. 257; the pectoral muscles of quadrupeds trifling in comparison to those of birds; in quadrupeds, as in man, the museles moving the thighs and hinder parts are strongest, while those of the arms are feeble; in birds the contrary obtains, iii. 39; those of the shark preserve their motion after being separated from the body, 367.

Mussel, the shell-fish, its description; its organs of generation are what most deserve to excite our curiosity; the crab and the cray-fish are seen to devour them, but the trochus is their most formidable enemy; it endeavours to become stationary, and to attach itself to any fixed object it happens to be near; its enemies; it is supposed that those threads, which are usually called the beard of the mussel, are the natural growth of the animal's body, and by no means produced at pleasure, as Reaumur supposes; its instrument of motion, by which it contrives to reach the object it wants to bind itself to; its food; some of this kind have been found a foot long; the natives of Palermo sometimes makes gloves and stockings of its beards; the places where found; it requires a year for the peopling a mussel-bed, iv. 55 to 58.

Muscovy duck, or *Musk duck*, so called from a supposed musky smell, iii. 303.

Music, said by the ancients to have been invented from the blows of different hammers on an anvil; in all countries, where music is in its infancy, the half tones

are rejected ; the Chinese have neither flats nor sharps in their music ; many barbarous nations have their instruments of music ; and their proportion between their notes is the same as in ours ; all countries pleased with music, and where they have no skill to produce harmony, they substitute noise ; its effects ; the ancients give us many strange instances of them upon men and animals ; and the moderns likewise ; madness cured by it ; and also excited by it ; remarkable instance in Henry IV. of Denmark ; fishes are allured by music ; horses and cows likewise, i. 320 to 323 ; the elephant appears delighted with music, ii. 394 ; Father Kircher has set the voices of birds to music, ii. 111.

Musk, among the numerous medicines procurable from quadrupeds, none, except the musk and hartshorn, have preserved a degree of reputation, ii. 74 ; a doubt whether the animal producing it be a hog, an ox, a goat, or a deer ; no animal so justly the reproach of natural historians as that which bears the musk ; it has been variously described, and is known very imperfectly ; the description given by Grew ; formerly in high request as a perfume ; has for more than a century been imported from the East ; is a dusky reddish substance, like coagulated blood ; a grain of it perfumes a whole room ; its odour continues for days without diminution, and no substance known has a stronger or more permanent smell ; in larger quantities it continues for years, and scarce wasted in weight, although it has filled the atmosphere to a great distance with its parts ; the most powerful remedy now in use in nervous and hysteric disorders ; the bags of musk from abroad supposed to belong to some other animal, or taken from some part of the same, filled with its blood, and enough of the perfume to impregnate the rest ; it comes from China, Tonquin, Bengal, and often from Muscovy ; that of Thibet reckoned the best, and of Muscovy the worst, 84 to 87.

Musk-rat, three distinctions, of it, ii. 298.

Muskey-smell does not properly make the characteristic marks of any kind of animals, ii. 54.

Musmon, or *Moufflon*, resembles a ram ; its description, ii. 63.

Myoides, a broad thin skin, covering the whole upper fore-part of the body, its effect in women with child, i. 287.

N.

Nails, how formed in man ; those of some of the learned men in China longer than their fingers ; savages that let them grow long, use them in slaying animals, i. 285 to 288.

Nanguin, a river in Asia, receives thirty rivers, i. 127.

Narwhal, the sea unicorn ; its description : errors concerning the teeth of this animal ; the most harmless and peaceful inhabitant of the ocean ; the Greenlanders call it the fore-runner of the whale, and why ; its fool ; is a gregarious animal ; a century ago its teeth considered the greatest rarity in the world ; they far surpass ivory in its qualities, iii. 350 to 353.

Natolian Goat, a remarkable variety in the goat kind, ii. 68.

Nature, lavish of life in the lower orders of the creation, i. 257 ; has brought man into life with more wants and infirmities than the rest of her creatures, 297 ; in a course of ages shapes herself to constraint, and assumes hereditary deformity ; instances of it, 360 ; has contracted the stomachs of animals of the forest, suitable to their precarious way of living, 298 ; has left no part of her fabric destitute of inhabitants, iii. 35 ; what might have led some late philosophers into the opinion that all nature was animated, iv. 328.

Nautilus, a sea-snail, most frequently seen swimming ; its shell very thin, and easily pierced ; its description, iv. 52.

Nazareth bird, whether the dodo or not is uncertain, iii. 76.

Neck, fishes and other animals that want lungs have none ; birds, in general, have it longer than any other kind of animals, i. 288 ; in women it is proportionably longer than in men, 289.

Nectareum, that part of a flower from which the honey is extracted, iv. 263.

Negroes of the Leeward Islands, by the smell alone distinguish the footsteps of a Frenchman from those of a negro, i. 328 ; several of them have white beards

and black hair; described; their features not deformed by art; they are in general found to be stupid, indolent, and mischievous; the women's breasts, after bearing one child, hang down below the navel, and are thrown over the shoulders to suckle the child at their backs, 353, 354; the jet black claim the honour of hereditary resemblance to our common parent; an argument sufficient to prove the contrary; two white negroes the issue of black parents, 360, 361; show their terror and surprise when they first see a horse, ii. 8; of the African coasts regard the bat with horror, and will not eat it though ready to starve, 332; happy to see numbers of monkeys destroyed, because they dread their devastations, and love their flesh; cannot comprehend advantages arising to Europeans from educating or keeping monkeys; and having seen young and tame monkeys bought, have offered rats for sale to our factors, and been greatly disappointed at finding no purchaser, ii. 376; their manner of killing the shark; are distractedly fond of its flesh, iii. 367 to 369.

Negroland, or Nigritia, the plague not known in it, i. 190.

Nerves, wherever they go, or send their branches in number, these parts are soonest begun, and most completely finished, i. 310.

Nees, or Nethe, a river near Bruges, in Flanders; great quantities of trees found in its mouth, at the depth of fifty feet; in such perfect preservation, that the particular kind of each tree may be instantly known, i. 163.

Nest of every species of birds has a peculiar architecture; where eggs are numerous, the nest must be warm, iii. 47; different places which birds choose for their nests, 48; description of the nest of an eagle found in the Peak of Derbyshire, 84; of the bald eagle, large enough to fill the body of a cart, 86; hanging nests in Brazil, 165; nests in the Philippine islands; made in such a manner as to have no opening but at the bottom, 167; the Chinese get those of the swallows from the rocks, and sell them in great numbers in the East Indies, where they are esteemed great delicacies, and eat dissolved in chicken or mutton broth, 215; that of the wasp one of the most curious objects in natural history; its description, iv. 275, 277.

Netherlands, their inhabitants greatly improved us in the woollen manufacture, ii. 60.

Nettles, how used to teach capons to clutch a fresh brood of chickens throughout the year, iii. 123.

Nettles of the sea, name given by some to the star-fish, iv. 315.

Nicola Pesce, a celebrated diver; his performances related by Kircher; he often swam over from Sicily into Calabria, carrying letters from the king; frequently known to spend five days in the midst of the waves, i. 170.

Nieper, or Boriathenes, a river rising in the middle of Muscovy, and running three hundred and fifty leagues to empty itself in the Black Sea, i. 123.

Niger, this river has a course of several hundred miles from its source, at the Mountains of the Moon, i. 86; confidently asserted that it is lost before it reaches the ocean, 132.

Nightingale, a bird of the sparrow kind, iii. 198; description of its melody by Pliny; its residence; for weeks together undisturbed, it sits upon the same tree; its nest and eggs; its song in captivity not so alluring; Gesner says it is possessed of a faculty of talking; story related by him in proof of this assertion; its food, and in what manner they must be kept; manner of catching the nightingale, and of managing them when caught, 202 to 209.

Nile, its course; its sources ascertained by missionaries; takes its rise in the kingdom of Gojam; receives many lesser rivers; Pliny mistaken in saying that it received none; the cause of its annual overflowings; time of their increase and decrease more inconsiderable now than in the time of the ancients, i. 125, 126.

Noise, the mind predisposed to joy, noise fails not to increase it into rapture; and those nations which have not skill enough to produce harmony, readily substitute noise; loud and unexpected disturbs the whole frame, and why, i. 321.

Nose, that of the Grecian Venus, such as would appear at present an actual deformity, i. 271; the form of the nose, and its advanced position, peculiar to the human visage; among the tribe of savage men, the nose is very flat; a Tartar

seen in Europe with little more than two holes through which to breathe, 278; whence originally may have come the flat noses of the blacks, 360.

Nostrils, wide, add a great deal to the bold and resolute air of the countenance; narrow ones, though supposed to constitute beauty, seldom improves expression, i. 278; of the cetaceous tribe, iii. 337; two in the great Greenland whale, 343.

Notonecta, the common water-fly; swims on its back, to feed on the under side of plants growing in water, iv. 221.

Numidian bird, or Guinea-hen, described, iii. 135.

Numidian crane; its peculiar gestures and contortions, iii. 236.

Nux vomica, ground and mixed with meal, supposed to be the most certain poison, and least dangerous, to kill rats, ii. 294; fatal to most animals, except man, iii. 124.

Nyl-ghaw, an animal between the cow and the deer, native of India; its description; dispositions and manners of one brought over to this country; its manner of fighting; at all our settlements in India considered as a rarity; esteemed good and delicious food, iii. 13, 14.

O.

Oaks, of Hatfield Chase Levels, as black as ebony, very lasting, and close grained, sold for fifteen pounds a-piece, i. 165.

Objects. See *Eye*.

Oby, in Tartary, a river of five hundred leagues, running from the lake of Kila into the Northern Sea, i. 124; receives about sixty rivers, 127.

Ocean, occupies considerably more of the globe than the land; its different names, all the rivers in the world flowing into it, would, upon a rude computation, take eight hundred years to fill it to its present height, i. 133, 134; savages consider it as an angry deity, and pay it the homage of submission; the bays, gulphs, currents, and shallows of it, much better known and examined than the provinces and kingdoms of the earth, and why; when England loses its superiority there, its safety begins to be precarious, 135, 136; opinions concerning its saltness, and that of Boyle particularly, 137; winds never change between the tropics in the Atlantic and Ethiopic Oceans, nor in the great Pacific Sea, 196; each has its insects and vegetables, 234.

Ocelot, or catamountain, its description, ii. 176; of the panther kind; one of the fiercest, and, for its size, one of the most destructive animals in the world; no arts can tame or soften their manners, 180.

Ocotzintcan, a kind of pigeon, one of the most splendid tenants of the Mexican forests, iii. 187.

Ohio, several enormous skeletons, five or six feet beneath the surface on the banks of that river, lately discovered, ii. 407.

Oil, the oil of that fish called cachalot is very easily converted into spermaceti, iii. 354; the porpoise yields a large quantity of it, 359; by the application of olive oil, the viper's bite is effectually cured, iv. 142.

Olive colour, the Asiatic, of that colour, claims the honour of the hereditary resemblance to our common parent, i. 360.

Oliver, (*William*) the first who discovered that the application of olive oil, cured the viper's bite effectually, iv. 142.

Onager, or the wild ass, is in still greater abundance than even the wild horse, ii. 24.

Ondatra, one of the three distinctions of the musk-rat; a native of Canada; can contract and enlarge its body at pleasure; creeps into holes where others seemingly less cannot follow; the female has two distinct apertures, one for urine, the other for propagation; this animal, in some measure, resembles the beaver, its manner of life during winter, in houses covered under a depth of eight or ten feet of snow; savages of Canada cannot abide its scent; call it stinkard; its skin very valuable, ii. 298, 299.

Onza, or ounce, of the panther kind; the onza of Linnæus, ii. 175.

Ophidium, the gilthead, by sailors called the dolphin, its description, iii. 399.

Opposum, the female's belly found double. when pursued, she instantly takes

her young into a false belly nature has given her, and carries them off, or dies in the endeavour, i. 413; an animal in North and South America, of the size of a small cat, and of the monkey kind; its description, ii. 386; a minute description of its bag; the young when first produced are very small, and immediately on quitting the real womb they creep into the false one, but the time of continuing there is uncertain; Ulloa has found five young hidden in the belly of the dam, alive and clinging to the teat three days after she was dead; chiefly subsists upon birds, and hides among the leaves of trees to seize them by surprise; cannot run with any swiftness, but climbs trees with great ease and expedition; it often hangs by the tail, and for hours together with the head downwards, keeps watching for its prey; by means of its tail flings itself from one tree to another, hunts insects, and escapes its pursuers; eats vegetable as well as animal substances; is easily tamed, but a disagreeable domestic, from its stupidity, figure, and scent, which, though fragrant in small quantities, is ungrateful when copious; during its gestation, the bag in which the young are concealed may be opened and examined without inconvenience; the young may be counted and handled; they keep fixed to the teat, and cling as firm as if they made a part of the body of the mother, 386 to 388.

Orb, description of the sea-orb, also called the sea-poreupine; is absolutely poisonous if eaten, iii. 392.

Ore of tin is heavier than that of other metals, i. 49.

Organs of digestion in a manner reversed in birds, iii. 43.

Organs of generation in fishes, iii. 333.

Orifices, or different verges in snails, iv. 49.

Orkney Islands, on their shores, the sea, when agitated by storms, rises two hundred feet perpendicular, i. 158.

Oroonoka, a river in South America, its source and length, i. 127.

Ortolan, a bird of the sparrow kind, iii. 197.

Osprey, its flesh liked by many, and, when young, an excellent food, according to Belonius, iii. 80.

Ostiac Tartars, a race that have travelled down from the north, i. 349.

Ostracion, a fish of the cartilaginous kind; is poisonous, iii. 392.

Ostrich, manner in which the Arabians hunt them, ii. 9, and iii. 67; an Arabian horse of the first speed scarcely outruns them, 9; its flesh proscribed in Scripture as unfit to be eaten; the greatest of birds; makes near approaches to the quadruped class; its description; appears as tall as a man on horseback; one brought into England above seven feet high; surprising conformation of its internal parts; a native only of the torrid regions of Africa; not known to breed elsewhere than where first produced; places they inhabit; the Arabians say it never drinks; are seen in large flocks, which to the distant spectator appear like a regiment of cavalry, and have often alarmed a whole caravan; will devour leather, glass, hair, iron, stones, or any thing given; in native deserts, leads an inoffensive social life; Thevenot affirms the male keeps to the female with connubial fidelity; thought much inclined to venery; some of their eggs above five inches in diameter, and weigh fifteen pounds; lay from forty to fifty eggs at one clutch; none has a stronger affection for her young; assiduous in supplying the young with grass, and careful to defend them, encountering every danger boldly; way of taking them among the ancients; the plumes used in their helmets; feathers plucked from the animal while alive more valued than those taken when dead; some savage nations of Africa hunt them for their flesh; the young female said to be the greatest delicacy of the natives of Africa; a single-egg sufficient entertainment for eight men; eggs well tasted, and extremely nourishing, of all chases, that of the ostrich, though most laborious, the most entertaining; use they make of its skin; its blood mixed with the fat a great dainty with the Arabians; inhabitants of Dara and Lybia breed flocks of them; tamed with little trouble; prized for more than feathers in their domestic state; often ridden upon and used as horses; Moore assures us he saw a man at Joar travelling upon an ostrich; and Adanson asserts that he had two young ostriches, the strongest of which ran swifter than the best English racer, with two negroes on his back; of all animals using wings with legs in running, these are by far the swiftest; the American ostrich, iii. 61 to 68.

Ottar of roses, a modern perfume, valued for its vegetable fragrance, ii. 250.

Otter, the link between land and amphibious animals, resembles terrestrial in make, and aquatic in living; swims faster than it runs; is brown, and like an overgrown weasel; differs in no respect from the weasel kind, except in having the feet webbed, and in living almost constantly in the water; its description; voracious animal, found near lakes; not fond of fishing in running water, and why; when in rivers, always swims against the stream, to meet rather than pursue the fish it preys upon; in lakes, destroys more than it devours, and spoils a pond in a few nights; tears to pieces the nets of the fishers; two different methods of fishing practised by it; infects the edges of lakes with the dead fish it leaves; often distressed for provisions in winter, when lakes are frozen, and then obliged to live upon grass, weeds, and bark of trees; its retreat the hollow of a bank made by the water; there it forms a gallery several yards along the water; description of its habitation; way of training it up to hunt fish, and, at the word of command, drive them up to the corner of a pond, seize the largest, and bring it in its mouth to its master; marks of its residence; bites with great fierceness, and never lets go its hold; brings forth its young under hollow banks upon beds of rushes, flags, or weeds; manner of taking the young alive; how fed when taken; some dogs trained up to discover its retreat; otters met with in most parts of the world; in North America and Carolina found white, inclining to yellow; description of the Brazilian otter, ii. 335 to 340.

Ovaria, two glandular bodies near the womb, resembling the cluster of small eggs found in fowls, i. 239.

Ouarine, species of the monkeys so called by Mr. Buffon, remarkable for the loudness of their voice, and the use to which they apply it, ii. 377, 378.

Oviparous animals, distinguished from the viviparous, the two classes for generation; all other modes held imaginary and erroneous, i. 242.

Ouran-outang, the wild man of the wood, an animal nearly approaching the human race; is the foremost of the ape kind; this name given to various animals walking upright, but of different countries, proportions, and powers; the troglodyte of Bontius, the drill of Purchas, and the pigmy of Tyson, have received this general name; its description in a comparative view with man; gigantic races of it described by travellers truly formidable; in the gloomy forests where only found, they hold undisputed dominion; many are taller than man, active, strong, intrepid, cunning, lascivious, and cruel; countries where found; in Borneo, the quality course him as we do the stag, and this hunting is a favourite amusement of the king; runs with great celerity; its description; Battel calls him pongo; assures us that in all he resembles man, but is larger to a gigantic state; a native of the tropical climates; he lives upon fruits, and is not carnivorous; goes in companies, and this troop meeting one of the human species without succour, shew him no mercy; they jointly attack the elephant, beat him with clubs, and force him to leave that part of the forest they claim as their own; is so strong that ten men are not a match for him; none of the kind taken but very young; one of them dying, the rest cover the body with leaves and branches; a negro-boy taken by one of these, and carried into the woods, continued there a whole year without any injury; they often attempt the female-negroes going into the woods, and keep them against their wills for their company, feeding them plentifully all the time; a traveller assures, that he knew a woman of Loango that lived among them for three years; they build sheds, and use clubs for their defence; sometimes walk upright, and sometimes upon all-fours, when fantastically disposed; though it resembles man in form, and imitates his actions, it is inferior in sagacity even to the elephant or the beaver; two of these creatures brought to Europe discovered an astonishing power of imitation, sat at table like men, ate of every thing without distinction, made use of knife, fork, and spoon, drank wine and other liquors; the male of these two creatures being sea-sick was twice bled in the arm, and afterwards, when out of order, he showed his arm, as desirous of relief by bleeding; another was surprisingly well behaved, drank wine moderately, and gladly left it for milk, or other sweet liquors; it had a defluxion upon the breast, which increasing caused its death in the space of one year from its arrival; these animals naturally run on all-four, ii. 357 to 366.

Ounce, or onza, remarkable for being easily tamed, and employed all over the East for the purposes of hunting, ii. 178; distinguished from the panther, the ounce of Linnæus, 175; does not pursue by the smell like those of the dog kind; a natural enemy to the dog, 178.

Owl, description of the common horned owl; the screech owl, and its distinctive marks, iii. 81; common mark by which all birds of this kind are distinguished from others; general characteristics of birds of the owl kind; though dazzled by a bright day-light, they do not see best in darkest nights, as imagined; moonlight nights are the times of their most successful plunder; seeing in the night, or being dazzled by day, not alike in every species of this kind; description of the great horned owl; names of several owls without horns; these horns nothing more than two or three feathers that stand up on each side over the ear; father Kircher, having set the voices of birds to music, has given all the tones of the owl-note, which makes a most tremendous melody; sometimes bewildered; what they do in that distress; aversion of the small birds to the owl; how they injure and torment him in the day-time; sport of bird-catchers by counterfeiting the cry of the owl; in what manner the great horned owl is used by falconers to lure the kite, when wanted for training the falcon; places where the great horned owl breeds; its nest, and number of eggs; the lesser owl takes by force the nest of some other bird; number of eggs; the other owls build near the place where they chiefly prey; a single owl more serviceable than six cats in ridding a barn of mice; an army of mice devoured at Hallontide by a number of strange painted owls; are shy of man, extremely untractable, and difficult to tame; the white owl in captivity refuses all nourishment, and dies of hunger; account of Mr. Buffon to this purpose, 107 to 114.

Ox, its eyes are brown, i. 275; on the fertile plains of India it grows to a size four times as large as the same kind bred on the alps, 359.

Oxney, an island near Romney Marsh, in what manner produced, i. 160.

Oysters, a horse known to be fond of oysters, i. 408; surprising manner in which monkeys manage an oyster, ii. 378; bivalved shell-fish are self-impregnated; they are deposited in beds where the tide comes in, at Colehester, and other places of the kingdom; these said to be better tasted; amazing size of oysters along the coasts of Coromandel, iv. 58 to 60; the pearl oyster has a large whitish shell, the internal coat of which is the mother-of-pearl, 62.

P.

Paca, improperly called American rabbit, an animal of South America; its cry, and manner of eating; is most like the agouti, yet differs in several particulars; its description; places where generally found; a very fat animal; its flesh considered as a delicacy, and often eaten, skin and all, like a young pig; is seldom taken alive, defending itself to the last extremity; persecuted not only by man, but by every beast and bird of prey; breeds in such numbers the diminution is not perceptible, ii. 284, 285.

Pachomac deserts, where the formidable bird condor is chiefly seen, men seldom venture to travel, iii. 91.

Pacific sea, the winds never change in it, i. 196.

Pacoës, a kind of camel in South America; its wool very valuable, iii. 13.

Paddock-moon, the silence of frogs in dry weather may serve to explain an opinion which some entertain, that there is a month in the year so called, in which they never croak, iv. 79.

Pain, nothing but repeated experience shews how seldom pain can be suffered to the utmost, i. 344.

Paleness, often the effect of anger, i. 280.

Palm-tree, the elephant eats the shoots and branch to the stump, ii. 395.

Pambamarca, mountains at Quito in Peru; a very uncommon meteor seen upon it by Ulloa, i. 220.

Pangolin, vulgarly the scaly lizard, is a native of the torrid climates of the ancient continent; of all animals the best protected from external injury; its description; at the approach of an enemy, it rolls itself up like the hedge-hog; its

scales so hard, when the animal has acquired its full growth, as to turn a musket-ball; the tiger, panther, and hyæna, make vain attempts to force this animal, when it rolls itself up like the hedge-hog; its flesh is considered by the negroes of Africa as a great delicacy; it has no teeth; lives entirely upon insects; there is not a more harmless inoffensive creature than this, unmolested; countries where found, ii. 319 to 322.

Panther, the foremost of the mischievous spotted kind, by many naturalists mistaken for the tiger; the panther of Senegal; the large panther; difference between these two; that of America, or jaguar, compared with the two former, ii. 173, 174; sometimes employed in hunting; the gazelle or leveret are its prey; it sometimes attacks its employer, 178, 179.

Parr, a peasant, lived to a hundred and forty-four, without being abstemious, i. 340.

Paradise-bird, few have more deceived and puzzled the learned than this; it is an inhabitant of the Molucca Islands; erroneous reports concerning this bird, and what has given rise to them; the native savages of those islands carefully cut off its legs before they bring it to market, and why; two kinds of the bird of paradise; their distinction from other birds; the description of this bird; found in great numbers in the island of Aro, where the inhabitants call it God's bird; live in large flocks, and at night perch upon the same tree; are called by some the swallows of Ternate, and like them have their stated times of return; their king distinguished from the rest by the lustre of his plumage, and the respect and veneration paid to him; killing the king, the best chance of getting the flock; the chief mark to know the king is by the ends of the feathers in the tail, having eyes like those of the peacock; how this bird breeds, or what the number of its young, remains for discovery; for beauty it exceeds all others of the pie-kind; the natives of the isle of Aro make a trade of killing and selling them to the Europeans, iii. 167 to 170.

Parakeet. See *Parrot*.

Parana, a river in South America, from which the Plata runs eight hundred leagues from its source to its mouth, i. 127.

Parasina, name given by the Italians to a fishing-line, not less than twenty miles long; baited with above ten or twelve thousand hooks, and sunk to the bottom along the coast in the Mediterranean, for that fishing called the *pielago*, iii. 374.

Parasite plants, not able to support themselves, grow and fix upon some neighbouring tree, i. 236.

Parrot, the middle or second size of the kind described; the ease with which this bird is taught to speak, and the number of words it is capable of repeating, are surprising; a grave writer affirms, that one of these was taught to repeat a whole sonnet from Petrarch; the author has seen one taught to pronounce the ninth commandment articulately; account of a parrot belonging to Henry VII; Linnaeus makes its varieties amount to forty-seven; Brisson extends his catalogue to ninety-five; and the author thinks them numberless; peculiarities observed in their conformation; common enough in Europe; will not, however, breed here; the rook is not better known with us than the parrot in almost every part of the East and West Indies; instances of sagacity and docility, particularly of the great parrot called *aicurous*; their nests and the number of eggs; usual method of taking the young; always speak best when not accustomed to harsh wild notes; in France very expert, but nothing to those of Brazil, which, Clausius says, are most sensible and cunning; natives of Brazil shoot them with heavy arrows, headed with cotton, which knock down the bird without killing it; those of the parakeet tribe are delicate eating; of this kind in Brazil, Labat assures these are the most beautiful in plumage, and the most talkative possible; are restless, and ever on the wing; their habits; their outcry when their companions fall; are very destructive on the coast of Guinea, and are considered by the negroes as their greatest tormentors; more than a hundred different kinds counted on the coast of Africa; the white sort called *lories*; countries where found; one, north of the Cape of Good Hope, takes its name from the multitude of parrots in its woods; a hundred kinds now known, not one of which naturally breeds in countries that

acknowledged the Roman power; the green parakeet, with a red neck, was the first of this kind brought into Europe, and the only one known to the ancients from Alexander the Great to Nero; disorders peculiar to the parrot kind; one well kept will live five or six and twenty years, iii. 174 to 182.

Partridges in England, a favourite delicacy at the tables of the rich, whose desire of keeping them to themselves has been gratified with laws for their preservation, no way harmonizing with the general spirit of English legislation, and why; there are two kinds, the gray and the red; the gray is most prolific, and always keeps on the ground; the red less common, and perches upon trees; the partridge is found in every country and climate; in Greenland, where it is brown in summer, becomes white in winter; those of Baraconda are larger legged, swifter of foot, and reside in the highest rocks; partridges of all sorts agree in one character, being immoderately addicted to venery, often to an unnatural degree; the male pursues the hen to her nest, and breaks her eggs rather than be disappointed; the young having kept in flocks during winter, break society in spring, when they begin to pair, and terrible combats ensue; their manners otherwise resemble those of poultry, but their cunning and instincts are superior; means the female uses to draw away any formidable animal that approaches her nest; the covies are from ten to fifteen, and, unmolested, they live from fifteen to seventeen years; method of taking them in a net, with a setting-dog, the most pleasant, and most secure; they are never so tame as our domestic poultry, iii. 142 to 144.

Passions, most of the furious sort characterized from the elevation and depression of the eye-brows, i. 276; freedom from passions not only adds to the happiness of the mind, but preserves the beauty of the face, 338.

Pastures, those of Great Britain excellently adapted to the cow kind, ii. 41.

Patas, by some called the red African monkey; its description, ii. 381.

Paul, (St.) in Lower Brittany. See *Sand*.

Paunch, name of the first stomach of ruminating animals, ii. 38.

Pazan, name of the eighth variety of gazelles, by Mr. Buffon, ii. 77.

Peacock, a saying among the ancients, As beautiful as is the peacock among birds, so is the tiger among quadrupeds, ii. 164; varieties of this bird; some white, others crested; that of Thibet the most beautiful of the feathered creation; our first were brought from the East Indies, and they are still found in flocks in a wild state in the islands of Java and Ceylon; the common people of Italy say it has the plumage of an angel, the voice of a devil, and the guts of a thief; in the days of Solomon we find his navies imported from the East apes and peacocks; Ælian relates they were brought into Greece from some barbarous country, and that a male and female were valued at thirty pounds of our money; it is said also, that when Alexander was in India he saw them flying wild on the banks of the river Hyarotis, and was so struck with their beauty, that he laid a fine and punishment on all who should kill or disturb them; the Greeks were so much taken with the beauty of this bird, when first brought among them, that it was shewn for money, and many came to Athens from Lacedæmon and Thessaly to see it; once esteemed a delicacy at the tables of the rich and great; Auficius Hurco stands charged by Pliny with being the first who fattened up peacocks for the feasts of the luxurious; Hortensius, the orator, was the first who served them up at an entertainment at Rome, and they are talked of as the first of viands; in the times of Francis I. it was a custom to serve up peacocks to the tables of the great, not to be eaten, but seen; in what manner they served them; its flesh is said to keep longer unputrefied than any other; has a predilection for barley; but as a proud and fickle bird, there is scarce any food it will at all times like; it strips the tops of houses of tiles or thatch, lays waste the labours of the gardener, roots up the choicest seeds, and nips favourite flowers in the bud; is still more salacious than the cock; requires five females at least to attend him, and, the number not sufficient, will run upon and tread the sitting hen; the pea-hen, as much as possible, hides her nest from him, that he may not disturb her sitting; she seldom lays above five or six eggs in this climate; Aristotle describes her laying twelve; in forests where they breed naturally they are very numerous; this bird lives about twenty years, and not till the third year has that beautiful variegated plumage of its tail; in the kingdom of Cambaya, says Taverner, near the city of Baroch,

whole flocks of them are in the fields ; description of their habits ; decoy made use of to catch them there, iii. 124 to 127.

Peacock, (sea) a name given to the Balearic crane, iii. 235.

Peak of Teneriffe, its volcano seldom free from eruptions, i. 62.

Peak, mountain in the Molucca islands, swallowed by an earthquake, i. 96, 97.

Pearl, an animal substance concreted and taking a tincture from the air ; found in all bivalved shells, the inside of which resembles that substance called mother-of-pearl ; *pearl-oyster*, from which the mother-of-pearl is taken ; several pearl fisheries ; the chief of them in the Persian Gulph, and the most valuable pearls brought from thence ; the wretched people destined to fish for pearls, usually die consumptive ; in what manner they fish for them, iv. 61 to 65.

Pearls, in stags, are parts rising from the crust of the beam, ii. 98.

Peccary, or *Tajacu*, an animal, a native of America ; found there in such numbers that they are seen in herds of several hundreds together ; at first view resembling a small hog ; its description ; has upon the back a lump like the navel in other animals ; goes in herds of two or three hundred, and unites, like hogs, in each other's defence ; delights not in marshes or mud like our hogs ; an unceasing enemy to the lizard, the toad, and the serpent kinds ; also feeds upon toads and serpents, ii. 137 to 140.

Pedigree, the Arabians preserve that of their best horses, ii. 10.

Pegu, a river called the Indian Nile, because of its overflowing, i. 128.

Pelagii, the Latin name for those shells fished up from the deep, iv. 39.

Pelican, a ruminating bird, ii. 39 ; a native of Africa and America ; its description ; the description of this bird from Father Labat ; their flesh rancid, and tastes worse than it smells ; use made by the Americans of their pounces ; is not entirely incapable of instruction in a domestic state ; instances of it ; Gesner tells us that the emperor Maximilian had a tame one which lived eighty years ; Aldrovandus mentions one believed to be fifty years old, iii. 267 to 271.

Penguins, a heavy water-fowl ; the wings of this tribe unfit for flight ; and their legs still more awkwardly adapted for walking ; they dive to the bottom ; or swim between two waters ; they never visit land but when coming to breed ; their colour ; are covered more warmly with feathers than other birds ; description of the Magellanic penguin ; they unite in them the qualities of men, fowls, and fishes ; instances of its gluttonous appetite ; their food and flesh ; are a bird of society, iii. 287 to 291.

Peninsula of India, on one side the coasts are near half the year harassed by violent hurricanes and northern tempests, i. 200.

Penpark-hole, in Gloucestershire ; its description, from Captain Sturmy, i. 44.

People, so young as fourteen or fifteen, often found to cease growing, i. 273.

Pepper, the Indians prefer that devoured and voided unconcocted by the toucan, iii. 161.

Perch, a prickly-finned thoracic fish, its description, iii. 400.

Perfumes, no perfume has a stronger or more permanent smell than musk, ii. 85 ; the scent of the martin a most pleasant perfume, 236 ; some of the weasel kind have a smell approaching to perfume, 243 ; that of the musk or the civet, 244 ; in what manner taken from the pouch ; civet a more grateful perfume than musk ; is communicated to all parts of the animal's body ; the fur impregnated, and the skin also ; a person shut up with one of them in a close room cannot support the scent ; this perfume sold in Holland for about fifty shillings an ounce, 248 to 250.

Persepolis, its pastures excellent for the purpose of rearing horses, ii. 16.

Persia, the horses of that country the most beautiful and most valuable of all in the East, ii. 16 ; there are studs of ten thousand white mares together, with hoofs so hard that shoeing is unnecessary, 13 ; description of the Persian horses by Pietro de la Valle, 16 ; the flesh of the wild ass so much liked that its delicacy is a proverb there ; an entertainment of wild asses exhibited by the monarch to Olearius, 25 ; two kinds of asses there, and some of them worth forty or fifty pounds, 29.

Persian Gulph, a very dangerous wind prevails, by the natives called the Samcycl ; it suddenly kills all those it involves in its passage, and frequently assumes a visible form, darting in a bluish vapour along the surface of the country, i. 206.

Perspiration, an experiment from which the learned may infer upon what foundation the doctrine of Sanetorian perspiration is built, i. 290.

Peruvians understood the art of preserving their dead for a long time, i. 378.

Peter the Great, of Russia, celebrated a marriage of dwarfs; the preparations for this wedding were grand, yet in a style of barbarous ridicule, i. 367.

Petroleum, an injection of this bituminous oil inwardly, and an application of asphaltum without, sufficient to make a mummy, i. 386.

Pettichaps, a bird of the sparrow kind, iii. 196.

Phalanger, a kind of opossum; its description; called the rat of Surinam, ii. 389.

Pharaoh, (the cat of) name given to the ichneumon, ii. 241.

Pharaoh, (the capon of) thought to be the true ibis; a devourer of serpents, iii. 233.

Phasis, a river of Colchis, in Asia Minor, from the banks of which the pheasants were brought into Europe, and still retain their name, iii. 131.

Phatugin, an animal less than the pangolin; where to be found, ii. 322.

Pheasants, at first propagated among us, brought into Europe from the banks of the Phasis, a river of Colchis, in Asia Minor, where they still retain their name; description of this beautiful bird; wild among us, is an envied ornament of our parks and forests, where he feeds upon acorns and berries; in the woods the hen pheasant lays from eighteen to twenty eggs in a season; but in a domestic state seldom above ten; it is better left at large in the woods than reduced to its pristine captivity; its fecundity, when wild, is sufficient to stock the forest, and its flesh acquires a higher flavour from its unlimited freedom; many varieties of pheasants; of all others, the *golden pheasant* of China the most beautiful, iii. 131 to 135.

Phlegium, a high mountain of Ethiopia, swallowed by an earthquake, i. 96.

Pholas, the file-fish, places where these animals are found; their power of penetrating; the pillars of the temple of Serapis, at Puteoli, were penetrated by them, they pierce the hardest bodies with their tongue, iv. 67, 68.

Pichincha, a remarkable mountain near Quito, in South America, i. 91.

Pie, no class of birds so ingenious, active, and well-fitted for society; they live in pairs, and their attachments are confined to each other; they build nests in trees or bushes; the male shares in the labour of building, and relieves his mate in the duties of incubation; and the young once excluded, both are equally active in making them ample provision; general laws prevail, and a republican form of government is established among them; they watch for the general safety of every bird of the grove; they are remarkable for instinct, and capacity for instruction; instances of it; the few general characters in which they all agree, iii. 147 to 149.

Pie, (sea) breeds in this country, and resides in its marshy parts, iii. 256.

Pigeons, are ruminating birds, ii. 39; those that live in a wild state by no means so fruitful as those in our pigeon-houses near home; the tame pigeon, and all its beautiful varieties, owe their origin to one species, the stock-dove; various names of tame pigeons; attempts made to render domestic the ring-dove, but fruitless; the turtle-dove a bird of passage; a pair put in a cage, and one dying, the other does not survive; the pigeon called *ocotzimtzean*, is one of the splendid tenants of the Mexican forests; pigeon of the dove-house is not so faithful as the turtle-dove; near fifteen thousand pigeons may in four years be produced from a single pair; the stock-dove seldom breeds above twice a year; the dove-house pigeon breeds every month; have a stronger attachment to their young than those who breed so often; the pigeons called carriers used to convey letters; not trained with as much care as formerly, when sent from a besieged city to those coming to relieve it; in an hour and a half they perform a journey of forty miles, iii. 182 to 187.

Pigmy, the existence of a pigmy race of mankind is founded in error or in fable, i. 366.

Pigtail is the last of the baboons; its description, ii. 371.

Pike, the description of this fish, iii. 403; instances of its rapacity, 420.

Pilchards, little differing from the herring; make the coast of Cornwall their place of resort; advantages of this fishery; money paid for pilchards exported has annually amounted to near fifty thousand pounds, iii. 413, 414.

- Pillau*, on the Baltic, the shores there divided into districts for the sturgeon-fishery, iii. 386.
- Pills*, of calcined shells and tobacco, used by the American Indians to palliate hunger, i. 302.
- Pilori*, one of the three distinctions of the musk-rat; a native of the West Indies, ii. 298.
- Pilot* of the shark, name given the sucking-fish or remora, and why, iii. 368.
- Pinch*, name of a monkey of the saggin kind; its description, ii. 383.
- Pintadal*, or the Guinea-hen, its description; different names given to this bird, iii. 135.
- Pintail*, a kind of duck, iii. 308.
- Pipal*, the Surinam toad, an extraordinary and hideous creature; its description, iv. 90, 91.
- Pipe-fish*, cartilaginous, and not thicker than a swan's quill; its description, iii. 391.
- Pipe-worms*, and other little animals, fix their habitations to the oyster's sides, and live in security, iv. 58.
- Pit-falls*, a wolf, a friar, and a woman, taken in one all in the same night; the woman lost her senses, the friar his reputation, and the wolf his life, ii. 210.
- Pithekos*, a name given by the ancients to the ape properly so called, ii. 366.
- Pivot*, the razor-shell, its motion, and habits; is allured by salt, iv. 61.
- Placenta*, that body by which the animal is supplied with nourishment, i. 252.
- Plague*, not well known whence it has its beginning; is propagated by infection; some countries, even in the midst of Africa, never infected with it; others generally visited by it once a year, as Egypt; not known in Nigritia; Numidia it molests not once in a hundred years; plague spread over the world in 1346, after two years travelling from the great kingdom of Cathay, north of China, to Europe; the plague desolated the city of London in 1665; for this last age it has abated its violence, even in those countries where most common, and why; a plague affected trees and stones, i. 189 to 191.
- Plaisne en Anjou*, a village in France, particular account of a dwarf born there, i. 368.
- Plaster of Paris*, finely powdered, boils and heaves in great waves, like water, i. 107.
- Planets* exceed the earth one thousand times in magnitude; at first supposed to wander in the heavens without fixed paths; perform their circuits with great exactness, and strict regularity, i. 10.
- Plants* and vegetables, will not grow so fast in distilled as undistilled water, i. 99; smell of some so powerful as hardly to be endured, 128; do not vegetate in an exhausted receiver, 182; but thus ceasing to vegetate, keep longer sweet than when exposed to external air, 183; their juices rarefied principally by the sun, to give an escape to their imprisoned air, 195; a certain plant in Ireland so strongly affected the person who beat it in a mortar, and the physician present, that their hands and faces swelled to an enormous size, and continued tumid for some time after; 189; compared with animals; similitude; how assimilated in different climates and soils, 232 to 235; the sensitive, that moves at the touch, has as much perception as the fresh-water polypus, possessed of a still slower share of motion, 232. See *Caraguata*, i. 233. See *Parasite*, 236.
- Plate*, or *Plata*, a great river in South America; its source and length, i. 127.
- Platina*, or white gold, the most obstinate of all substances, i. 48.
- Pleurs en Champagne*, a town in France, buried beneath a rocky mountain, i. 94.
- Pliny*, in his arrangements, placed the bats among birds, ii. 328.
- Plover*, the green and gray, are birds of passage; the Norfolk plover for the most part resides here, iii. 256, 257.
- Pochard*, a kind of duck, iii. 308.
- Poetry*, our ancestors excel us in the poetic arts, i. 375.
- Pointer*, a kind of dog, ii. 192.
- Poison*, the most deadly poisons are often of great use in medicines, i. 327; fishes often live and subsist upon such substances as are poisonous to the more perfect classes of animated nature; the many speculations and conjectures to which

this poisonous quality in some fishes has given rise, iii. 422, 423 ; some crabs found poisonous, iv. 16 ; the seat where the poison in venomous serpents lies, 136 ; the serpent-poison may be taken inwardly, without any sensible effects, or any prejudice to the constitution ; if milk be injected into a vein it will kill with more certain destruction than even the poison of the viper, 138, 139. See *Fire-flare*. See *New Providence*.

Polar regions, description of them, i. 14, 15 ; and of the inhabitants round them ; are of a short stature, and savage appearance, 346.

Pole-cat, a distinct species from the ermine ; resembles the ferret so much, that some have thought them the same animal ; there are many distinctions between them ; description of the pole-cat ; very destructive to young game ; the rabbit its favourite prey ; and one pole-cat destroys a whole warren by a wound hardly perceptible ; it kills much more than it can devour ; generally reside in woods or thick brakes, making holes two yards deep under ground ; female brings forth in summer five or six young at a time, and supplies the want of milk with the blood of such animals as she can seize ; the fur is in less estimation than of inferior kinds, and why ; an inhabitant of temperate climates, being afraid of cold as well as heat ; the species confined in Europe to a range from Poland to Italy, ii. 234 to 236 ; pole-cat of America and Virginia are names for the squash and the skink ; distinctions of these animals, 243, 244 ; seizes the flying-squirrel, 275.

Poles, trade-winds continually blow from them towards the equator, i. 198 ; the winter beginning round the poles, the same misty appearance produced in the southern climates by heat is there produced by cold ; the sea smokes like an oven there, 222 ; the strength of the natives round the polar regions is not less amazing than their patience in hunger, 348.

Polynemus, description of this fish, iii. 401.

Polypus, very voracious ; noted for its amazing fertility ; its description ; uses its arms as a fisherman his net ; is not of the vegetable tribe, but a real animal ; every polypus has a colony sprouting from its body ; and these new ones, even while attached to the parent, become parents themselves, with a smaller colony also budding from them ; though cut into thousands of parts, each still retains its vivacious quality, and shortly becomes a distinct and complete polypus, fit to reproduce upon cutting in pieces ; it hunts for its food, and possesses a power of choosing it, or retreating from danger, i. 243, 244 ; dimensions of the sea-polypus, and of that which grows in fresh water ; the power of dissection first tried upon these animals to multiply their numbers ; Mr. Trembley has the honour of the first discovery of the amazing properties and powers of this little vivacious creature ; their way of living ; arms serve them as lime-twigs do a fowler ; how it seizes upon its prey ; the cold approaching to congelation, they feel the general torpor of nature, and their faculties are for two or three months suspended ; such as are best supplied soonest acquire their largest size, but they diminish also in their growth with the same facility if their food be lessened ; some propagated from eggs ; some produced by buds issuing from the body, as plants by inoculation ; while all may be multiplied by cuttings, to an amazing degree of minuteness ; of those produced like buds from the parent stem, should the parent swallow a red worm, it gives a tincture to all its fluids, and the young partake of the parental colour ; but if the latter should seize upon the same prey, the parent is no way benefited by the capture, all the advantage thus remains with the young ; several young of different sizes are growing from its body ; some just budding forth, others acquiring a perfect form, and others ready to drop from the original stem ; those young still attached to the parent bud and propagate also, each holding dependence upon its parent ; artificial method of propagating these animals by cuttings ; Mr. Hughes describes a species of this animal, but mistakes its nature, and calls it a sensitive flowering-plant, iv. 317 to 323.

Polypus-coral, the work of an infinite number of reptiles of that kind, iv. 324.

Pomerania, a large part of it covered by the sea, i. 162.

Pongo, name given by Battel to the ouran-outang, ii. 363.

Poppies affect with drowsiness those who walk through fields of them, i. 189.

Porcelain, an artificial composition of earth and water, united by heat, i. 99.

Porcupine, as to quills might be classed among the birds, i. 400 ; its description,

ii. 313; of all those brought into Europe, not one ever seen to launch its quills, though sufficiently provoked; their manner of defence; directs its quills pointing to the enemy; and Kolben relates, the lion then will not venture an attack; feeds on serpents and other reptiles; porcupine of Canada subsists on vegetables; those brought to this country for show usually fed on bread, milk, and fruits; do not refuse meat when offered; is extremely hurtful to gardens; the Americans, who hunt it, believe it lives from twelve to fifteen years; time of their gestation; the female brings forth one at a time; she suckles it about a month, and accustoms it to live like herself upon vegetables and the bark of trees; the porcupine never attempts to bite or any way injure its pursuers; manner of escaping when hunted by a dog or a wolf; circumstances concerning it remaining to be known; little known with precision, except what offers in a state of captivity; description of one kept in an iron cage; the porcupine of America differs much from that of the ancient continent; two kinds, the couanda and the urson; description of both, 313 to 318.

Porcupine of the sea, described, iii. 392.

Pork, unpalatable with us in summer, is the finest eating in the warmer latitudes, ii. 25.

Porpoise, or *Porpesse*, a fish less than a grampus, with the snout of a hog; its description and habits, iii. 355, 356; possess, proportionably to their bulk, the manners of whales; places where they seek for prey; manner of killing them in the Thames; yield a large quantity of oil; the lean of some, not old, said to be as well tasted as veal; caviar prepared from the eggs of this fish, 358, 359.

Ports choked up with sand by the vehemence of the wind, i. 201.

Pouch, or bag, receptacle of the civet, ii. 249. See *Bustard*, iii. 137. See *Pelican*, iii. 267.

Poultry, general characteristics of the poultry kind; nearly all domestic birds of this kind maintained in our yards are of foreign extraction; the courtship of this kind is short, and the congress fortuitous; the male takes no heed of his offspring; though timorous with birds of prey, he is incredibly bold among his own kind; the sight of a male of his own species produces a combat; the female takes all the labour of hatching and bringing up her young, choosing a place remote from the cock, iii. 115 to 118.

Powis Land, in Wales, for many ages famous for a swift and generous race of horses, ii. 21.

Pouters, a variety of the tame pigeons, iii. 186.

Pregnancy, of some women found to continue a month beyond the usual time, i. 256; of all animals, in point of time, is proportioned to their size, 412; in that state no animals, except the hare, receive the male, ii. 258; the duration in the female of the elephant still unknown, 400.

Pressures, perpendicular in rivers, always in exact proportion to the depth, i. 118.

Prey, all the males of these birds less and weaker than the females, iii. 80. See *Birds*.

Pricket, name hunters give the buck the second year, ii. 106.

Propagation of gnats, one of the strangest discoveries in natural history, iv. 305; a new kind lately discovered in a most numerous tribe of animals, propagated by cuttings, 308; different manner of that operation in the polypi, 321.

Propolis, a resinous gum, with which bees plaster the inside of their hives, iv. 261.

Proportion of the human figure, very little known with precision in regard to it, i. 288.

Provider of the lion, what has given rise to the jackal's being so called, i. 405.

Psalmodi, an island in France, in A. D. 815, now six miles from the shore, i. 161.

Ptarmigan, sort of grouse, chiefly found in heathy mountains and piny forests, iii. 138, 139.

Pthiriasis, the lousy disease, frequent among the ancients; principal people who died of this disorder; plants and animals are infested with diseases of this kind; a vegetable louse from America over-run all the physic-garden of Leyden; the leaf-louse described; three principal and constant enemies to those insects, iv. 177 to 181.

Puffin, or *Coulterneb*, marks that distinguish this bird ; its residence ; migration ; found by hundreds, cast away upon shores, lean and perished with famine ; lays one egg ; few birds or beasts venture to attack its retreat ; in what manner it defends itself against the raven ; the Manks' puffin is itself one of the most terrible invaders ; instances of it ; places which abound with them ; in what manner their young are fed ; their food, iii. 292 to 296.

Puget adapted the cornea of a flea in such a position as to see objects through it by means of a microscope ; strangeness of the representations, iv. 244.

Puma, an animal decorated with the name of American lion, though, when compared, so contemptible as to be inferior to that called the American tiger, ii. 163.

Pump, an experiment upon a carp put under a receiver, iii. 329.

Purra, a small bird of the crane kind, with a shorter bill, and thighs bare of feathers, iii. 253.

Puteoli, a city swallowed up by an earthquake, had a temple of Serapis, the pillars of which, while under water, were penetrated by the pholas, or file-fish, iv. 68.

Putrefaction, a new cause of animal life, i. 242.

Pyramids of Egypt, one of them entirely built of a kind of free-stone, in which petrified shells are found in great abundance, i. 34.

Pyrard, his account of a kind of apes called baris, which, properly instructed when young, serve as useful domestics, ii. 362.

Pyrites, their composition, i. 50.

Q.

Quadrupeds, they bear the nearest resemblance to man, i. 399 ; the weaker races exert all efforts to avoid their invaders ; next to human influence, the climate seems to have the strongest effects upon their nature and form ; both at the line and the pole, the wild are fierce and untameable ; America inferior to us in these productions ; opinion that all in South America are a different species from those most resembling them in the old world ; such as peculiarly belong to the new continent are without any marks of the perfection of their species ; the large and formidable produce but one young at a time, while the mean and contemptible are prolific ; it has been wisely ordered so by Providence, 406 to 412 ; those that ruminate are harmless and easily tamed, ii. 37 ; they are chiefly the cow, the sheep, and the deer kind, 39 ; the largest are found in the torrid zone, and these are all fond of the water, 52 ; chevrotin, or little Guinea-deer, the least of all cloven-footed animals, and perhaps the most beautiful ; its description, 81 ; none can be more beautiful than the tiger, 164 ; change of colour in the hair obtains in them all to a degree plainly observable, 228 ; the carnivorous have not milk in plenty, 235 ; are not fond of engaging each other, 237 ; general description of amphibious quadrupeds, 334.

Quail, a bird of passage ; description of it, iii. 145.

Quarry of Maestricht, forty thousand people may take shelter in it ; its description, i. 43.

Quicksilver, remarkable effects of it at the mines near Idra, related by Dr. Pope in the Philosophical Transactions, i. 51.

Quills. See *Porcupine*, ii. 314.

Quito, in South America, one of the most charming regions upon earth, i. 90.

R.

Rabbit, a ruminating animal, ii. 39 ; rabbit and hare distinct kinds ; a creature covered with feathers and hair said to be bred between a rabbit and a hen ; breed seven times a year, and bring eight young each time, 263, 264 ; various colours of rabbits ; the mouse-coloured kinds originally from an island in the river Humber, still continuing their general colour after a number of successive generations ; account of their production ; the rabbit generally fatter, and lives longer, than the hare ; native of the warmer climates ; it has been imported into England from Spain ; in some of the islands of the Mediterranean, they multiplied in such numbers that military aid was demanded to destroy them ; love a warm climate ; de-

light in grounds of a sandy soil ; the fur a very useful commodity in England, 265 to 268.

Rabbit, (Syrian) remarkable for the length, gloss, and softness of the hair, ii 153, 268.

Rabbit, (Brazilian) shaped like the English, but without a tail, ii. 285.

Racoon, with some the Jamaica rat ; its description and habits ; do more injury in one night in Jamaica than the labours of a month can repair ; capable of being instructed in amusing tricks ; drinks by lapping as well as by sucking ; its food ; iii. 20 to 22.

Rainbows, circular rainbows in the Alps, i. 87 ; and between the tropics, and near the poles, 217 ; one of the three rainbows seen by Ulloa, at Quito, was real, the rest only reflections thereof ; a glass globe filled with water will assume successively all the colours of the rainbow, 221.

Rainfowl, the name given in some parts of the country to the woodpecker, iii. 163.

Rams, it is no uncommon thing, in the counties of Lincoln and Warwick, to give fifty guineas for a ram, ii. 61.

Ranger, name of the ninth variety of gazelles, made by Mr. Buffon, ii. 79.

Rarefaction of the air produced by the heat of the sun in countries under the line, i. 199.

Rats, musk-rat, three distinctions of that species, the *ondatra*, *desmon*, and *pilori* ; in what they resemble each other ; the savages of Canada think the musk-rat intolerably foetid, but deem its flesh good eating ; *great rat*, called also *rat of Norway*, though unknown in all northern countries ; originally from the Levant, and a new-comer into this country ; first arrival upon the coasts of Ireland, with ships trading in provisions to Gibraltar ; a single pair enough for the numerous progeny now infesting the British empire ; called by Mr. Buffon the *surnalot* ; its description ; the Norway rat has destroyed the *black rat*, or *common rat*, as once called ; and being of an amphibious nature, has also destroyed the frogs in Ireland ; the feeble animals do not escape the rapacity of the Norway rat, except the mouse ; they eat and destroy each other ; produces from fifteen to thirty at a time, and bring forth three times a year ; the *black rat* has propagated in America in great numbers, introduced from Europe, and are become the most noxious animals there ; *black water rat* not web-footed, as supposed by Ray ; the *German rat*, see *Cricetus*, ii. 290 to 299.

Rat of Surinam. See *Phalanger*, ii. 389.

Rat of Jamaica, a name given to the *racoon*, iii. 20.

Rattlesnake, kind of friendship between it and the armadillo, or taton, frequently found in the same hole, ii. 326 ; its description and dimensions ; effects of its bite ; the remedies against it ; power of charming its prey into its mouth ; facts related to this purpose, iv. 143 to 147.

Ravens, how distinguished from the *carrion-crow* and *rook* ; manners and appetites ; ravens found in every region of the world ; white ravens often shown, and rendered so by art ; amusing qualities, vices, and defects ; found in the wild state ; places for building nests ; number of eggs ; will not permit their young to keep in the same district, but drive them off, when sufficiently able to shift for themselves ; the Romans thought it ominous, and from fear paid it profound veneration ; Pliny's account of one kept in the temple of Castor, that flew down into the shop of a tailor ; some have lived near a hundred years, iii. 150 to 153 ; the horned Indian raven, 156.

Ravenna once stood by the sea-side, and is now removed from it, i. 160.

Ray, his method of classing animals, i. 390.

Ray, figure of the fish of this kind, and their differences ; amazing dimensions of one speared by negroes at Guadaloupe ; to credit the Norway bishop, there are some above a mile over ; supposed to be the largest inhabitants of the deep ; three hundred eggs taken out of the body of a ray ; in what manner the eggs drop into the womb from the ovary or egg-bag, iii. 369 to 372.

Rays of light moderated, and their violence dissipated, by the air, i. 193.

Rays of the sun, darted directly upon the surface of the water, compared to so many bars of red-hot iron, i. 213.

- Razor-shell*, the pivot ; its motion and habits, is allured by salt, iv. 61.
- Reanmur*, his chemical laboratory for hatching chickens, iii. 123.
- Redbreast*. See *Robin-Redbreast*.
- Redstart*, bird of the sparrow kind, iii. 196.
- Redwing*, or *Fieldfare*, bird of passage ; its nest and eggs, iii. 201.
- Reed* stuck into the ground in Persia continues to burn like a flambeau, i. 55.
- Reeve*, name given to the female of the *ruff*, iii. 259.
- Reflection of sound*, its laws not as well understood as those of light, i. 324.
- Regions*, the highest region in the world, i. 90.
- Rein-deer*. See *Deer*, ii. 117.
- Remora*, the *sucking-fish*, it sticks to the shark, and drains away its moisture, iii. 368.
- Reproduction*. See *Trembley*, iv. 313.
- Reptiles* grow to a prodigious size in the internal parts of South America and Africa, and why ; infinite numbers of them not seen in this part of the world, and why, i. 233 to 235.
- Resemblance* to the common parent of all ; the olive-coloured Asiatic, and the jet black negro, claim the honour of hereditary resemblance to him ; argument sufficient to prove the contrary, i. 360, difficult to give a reason why the child should resemble the father or the mother, 365,
- Respiration in fishes*, general method of explaining it, iii. 323.
- Rhine*, a great river proceeds from the Alps, i. 86 ; part of it lost in the sands, not far from Leyden ; the greatest part arrives at the ocean, 131.
- Rhinoceros*, a ruminating animal, ii. 39 ; not afraid singly to oppose the lion, 160 ; next to the elephant the most powerful of animals ; general outline of it ; the elephant defeated by it ; its horn sometimes found from three feet to three feet and a half long ; this horn composed of the most solid substance, and pointed so as to inflict the most fatal wounds ; a rhinoceros sent from Bengal to London, not above two years old, cost near 1000*l.* for his conveyance and food ; in some parts of Asia those animals are tamed, and led into the field to strike terror into the enemy, but are as dangerous to their employers ; method of taking them, some found in Africa with a double horn, one above the other ; many medicinal virtues ascribed to this horn, when taken in powder, without any foundation, 408 to 411.
- Rivers*, all our greatest find their source among mountains, i. 86 ; their production according to De la Hire, 115 ; other hypotheses upon the same subject, 116 ; make their own beds, and level the bottom of their channels ; their sinuosities and turnings more numerous as they proceed ; a certain sign with the savages of North America they are near the sea when they find the rivers winding and often changing their direction ; a little river received into a large without augmenting either width or depth, and why ; instance of it ; a river tending to enter another either perpendicularly or in an opposite direction, will be diverted by degrees from that direction, and obliged to make itself a more favourable entrance with the stream of the former ; whatever direction the ridge of the mountain has, the river takes the opposite course, 119 to 123 ; every great river, whose source lies within the tropics, has its stated inundations, 128 ; those of countries least inhabited are very rocky and broken into cataracts, and why, 129 ; at the poles necessarily small, and why ; the rivers of Europe more navigable and more manageable than those of Africa and of the torrid zone ; all rivers in the world flowing into the sea with a continuance of their present stores would take up, at a rude computation, eight hundred years to fill it to its present height, 133 to 134.
- Robin-Redbreast*, a slender-billed bird of the sparrow kind, living upon insects, iii. 196.
- Rock*, great bird described by Arabian writers, and exaggerated by fable, but a species of the Condor, iii. 90.
- Rocks*. See *St. Kilda*, iii. 281.
- Roebuck*. See *Deer*, ii. 108.
- Roger de Belegme*, the first who attempted to mend our breed of horses, ii. 21.
- Roger of Sicily*. See *Silk Manufactures*, iv. 251.
- Roller*, a beautiful bird of the pie kind ; its description, iii. 160.
- Romans* cut down all the woods and forests in Britain, and why, i. 166 ; the

vanity of their boasts best shown by the parrot kind ; in a hundred species now known, not one of those birds naturally breeds in any of the countries that acknowledged the Roman power, iii. 181 ; a Roman emperor had fifteen hundred flamingos' tongues served up in a single dish at a feast, 249 ; a Roman senator used to throw into his ponds such of his slaves as offended him, to feed the lamprays, 383.

Rombuld, a holy temperate man, said to have lived 120 years, i. 302.

Rooks of the pie kind ; not carnivorous ; their plan of policy ; their chief food, iii. 153 to 156.

Rousette, the great bat of Madagasear. See *But*, ii. 332.

Royston-crow, a bird of passage described, iii. 153.

Rubeth, the land-toad. See *Toad*, iv. 88.

Ruff, small bird of the crane kind ; manner of taking it, iii. 259.

Ruminant quadrupeds, birds, fishes, insects ; men known to ruminate ; instance in a young man at Bristol ; those of the cow kind hold the first rank, ii. 39, 40 ; all of this class internally much alike ; have not the upper foreteeth, 61 ; the stag performs this with more difficulty than the cow or sheep, 94. See *Animal*, ii. 37 to 40.

Runner, the corrira, bird of the crane kind, its description, iii. 252.

Runts, a variety of tame pigeons produced by cross coupling, iii. 186.

Rust, copper and iron quickly covered with it ; gold contracts no rust, i. 181.

Rut, time when the stag feels the desire of copulating, ii. 92.

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Sable, its description from Mr. Jonelin, the first accurate observer of this animal ; sables leap with ease from tree to tree, and are afraid of the sun ; different colours of their fur ; hunting the sable chiefly the lot of soldiers and condemned criminals ; how directed to shoot them, ii. 239 to 240.

Sabre, the trachepterus, description of this spinous fish, iii. 401.

Sacree, bird of the generous breed of hawks, iii. 99.

Sago tree, ate by the elephant to the stump, ii. 395.

Sai, the bewailer, a monkey of the new continent, ii. 383.

Sail, a stag hard hunted, taking to the water, is said to go sail, ii. 98.

Saines, name of the nets used in the pilehard fishery on the coast of Cornwall, iii. 413.

Sajou, third sort of the sapajou, a monkey of the new continent, ii. 382.

Saki, the cagui, the largest monkey of the sagoin kind ; its description, ii. 383.

Sal Ammoniac made of the urine of camels, iii. 10.

Salamander, there is no such animal existing as that described by the ancients ; the modern salamander a lizard ; there are many kinds ; its conformation and habits ; reports concerning their venom ; idle notion of its being inconsumable in fire, iv. 106 to 108.

Saliva, in the lama, or American camel, supplied by nature in such abundance that it spits on all occasions, and seems the only offensive weapon of this harmless creature, iii. 12.

Salmon, a ruminating fish, ii. 39 ; a soft-finned abdominal fish, iii. 403.

Salt-water. See *Sea* and *Salt-water*.

Salt, bay salt, brought from the Bay of Biscay, a strong kind made by evaporation in the sun, i. 141 ; volatile caustic salt obtained in great quantities from the cantharides fly, iv. 299.

Sanari, the aurora, the smallest and most beautiful monkey of the sapajou kind, ii. 383.

Samæid Tartars, description of that people, i. 346.

Sanctorian statical experiments upon a weak foundation, i. 290.

Sand, rolling in waves like a troubled sea, and overwhelming all with inevitable destruction, i. 16 ; tract of a country lying along the sea-side in Lower Brittany, inhabited before the year 1666, now lies desert, being covered with sand to the height of twenty feet, 209.

Sonderling, small bird of the crane kind, iii. 253.

Sandpiper, small bird of the crane kind, iii. 258.

Santorin, an earthquake there in 1707; a volcano near it, i. 77.

Sapajou, name given to the monkeys of the new continent, ii. 380

Savages more difficult in point of dress than the most fashionable or tawdry European; instance of it, i. 283; perform a journey of twelve hundred leagues in less than six weeks, 293; oblige their women to a life of continual labour; surprised an European walks forward for his amusement and returns back again, 296.

Sauce made with the blood and marrow of the rein-deer, by the Laplanders, ii. 127.

Scallop, in its shell moves forward upon land, and swims upon the surface of the water, by contrivance in a singular manner, iv. 60.

Scar, a child distinctly marked similar to one the father received in battle, i. 360.

Scarus, if we believe Ovid, is, like the salmon, a ruminating fish, ii. 39.

Scaup duck, a variety of the duck kind, iii. 308.

Seent, the negroes of Guinea have an insupportable scent, i. 353.

Scotteus assures us, he saw an instance of fishes being allured by music, i. 322

Sciæna, a spinous fish; description of this fish, iii. 400.

Scolopendra, the centipedes, a hideous angry worm, described, iv. 192.

Scomber, the mackarel, a prickly-finned thoracic fish; its description, iii. 400.

Scorpæna, or father-lasher, of the prickly-finned thoracic kind, iii. 400.

Scorpion, four principal parts distinguishable in this animal; the reservoir where its poison is kept; effect of its sting upon a dog, in an experiment made by M. Maupertius; experiments made upon other dogs; instances of its irascible nature and malignity; when driven to extremity destroys itself; instance of it; captivity makes it destroy its young; a scorpion of America produced from the egg, iv. 186 to 191.

Scorpion, (*Water*) an insect with wings, described, iv. 221.

Scoter, an European duck, iii. 308.

Scotland has land in it at one time covered with water, at another free, i. 162.

Scotchman, in the Tower, took not the least sustenance during six weeks, i. 302.

Sea was open to all till the time of the emperor Justinian, i. 136; sensibly retired in many parts of the coast of France, England, Holland, Germany, and Prussia, 160; Norwegian sea has formed several little islands from the main land, and still daily advances upon the continent, 162; its colour not from any thing floating in it, but from the different reflections of the rays of light; a proof of it; the sea grows colder in proportion as divers descend, 169; smokes like an oven near the poles, when the winter begins, 222; no fish imbibe any of the sea-saltiness with food or in respiration, iii. 167.

Sea (*Red*) choked up with coralline substances, i. 167.

Sea-eggs, name given to the multivalve shell-fish of the echini, which move, iv. 65.

Sea-nettles, name given by some to the star fish, iv. 315.

Sea-water, various methods proposed to render it fresh for the use of seamen in long voyages, i. 139; about a forty-fifth part heavier than fresh-water; is heavier, and consequently salter, the nearer we approach the line, 141.

Sea-worm may be multiplied by being cut to pieces, i. 243. See *Polypus*.

Seal, its description; the varieties innumerable; the brain largest of any animal; the *foramen ovale* in its heart never closing, fits it for continuing under water; the water its habitation; seldom at a distance from the shore; found in the North and Icy Seas, and on those shores in flocks; gregarious and migrant; direct their course to northern coasts, and seas free of ice, in two departures, observing time and track; how and by what passages they return unknown; females in our climate bring forth in winter; where they rear their young; hunt and herd together, and have a variety of tones like dogs and cats, to pursue prey, or warn of danger; neither length of time in pregnancy, nor duration of these animals' lives, yet known; two taken young, after ten years had the marks of age; how the Europeans and Greenlanders destroy them; in our climate they are wary, and suffer no approach; never sleep without moving, and seldom more than a minute; taken for the skins and oil the fat yields; the flesh formerly at the tables

of the great ; an instance of it ; sea-lion, in Anson's Voyages, the largest of the seal family, ii. 345 to 352.

Sculls, some thought to thrive better for maceration in the stomach of birds, before they be voided on the ground, iii. 197.

Senegal, a river in Africa ; its course ; is navigable for more than three hundred leagues, i. 124 ; receives more than twenty rivers, 127 ; the natives consider forty years as a very advanced time of life, and generally die of old age at fifty, 186.

Sensations, their allusions at first when man is newly brought into existence, described by Mr. Buffon, i. 332 ; fish fall behind terrestrial animals in their sensations, iii. 325.

Senses, of all senses man is most inferior to other animals in that of smelling ; and it seems not to offend them, i. 323 ; the grossest, and most useful of all, is that of feeling, 331.

Sensitive plant has as much perception as the fresh-water polyphus, i. 232.

Seps, improper name of the Chalcidian lizard ; its description, iv. 116.

Seraglio, to be able to furnish one the only ambition of an Asiatic, i. 269.

Serpents, the sea about the islands of Azores replenished with them for want of motion, i. 1-10 ; the various hissings at the close of the evening, make a louder symphony in Africa, than birds in European groves in a morning, 401 ; to believe all said of the sea-serpent is credulity, to refuse assent to its existence is presumption, iii. 3-10 ; sea-serpent, the clops described, 401 ; marks distinguishing them from the rest of animals ; their conformation ; progressive motion ; the only animal in the forest that opposes the monkey ; entwines and devours the buffalo ; account of a combat between a serpent and a buffalo ; no animals bear abstinence so long as they ; little serpents live for several years in glasses, never cut at all, or stain the glass with excrements ; little serpent at the Cape of Good Hope, and north of the river Senegal ; long serpent of Congo ; some bring forth their young alive, some bring forth eggs ; some venomous, and some inoffensive ; animals which destroy them ; boasted pretensions of charming serpents ; have docility ; Egyptians paid adoration to a serpent, and the inhabitants of the western coast of Africa retain the same veneration ; all amphibious ; their motion, swimming in liquids ; the Æsculapian serpent, iv. 120 to 130 ; sent of poison in venomous serpents ; instrument by which the wound is made ; those destitute of fangs are harmless ; various appearances the venom produces ; may be taken inwardly without sensible effects or prejudices to the constitution ; instances of the force of serpents' poison from Ray ; their principal food birds, moles, toads, lizards, 136 to 140 ; the prince of serpents, a native of Japan, the greatest favourite of savages, 152.

Serval, a native of Malabar, resembling the panther in spots, ii. 177.

Setter, a dog of the generous kind, ii. 192.

Severn, lamprey of this river the most delicate of all fish, iii. 381.

Shagreen made of the skin of the wild ass, ii. 25 ; also the shark, iii. 369.

Shammoy, a kind of goat, in the mountains of Dauphiny, Piedmont, Savoy, Switzerland, and Germany ; its description ; their flesh good to eat ; in cases of danger its hissing noise is heard at a great distance ; by smell discovers a man at half a league ; admired for the beauty of its eyes ; not found in summer except in caverns of rocks, amidst fragments of ice, or under the shades of spreading trees ; during winter it sleeps in the thicker forests, and feeds upon shrubs and buds of pine-trees, and scratches up the snow for herbage ; manner of hunting it ; skin of the shammoy when tanned, liked for softness and warmth ; the leather now called shammoy made from the tame goat, sheep, and deer, ii. 71 to 74. See *Bezoar*, ii. 74.

Shank, the red and green shank, varieties of the crane kind, iii. 253.

Shark, description of the great white shark ; no fish swims so fast ; outstrips the swiftest ships ; instances of frightful rapacity in this fish ; its enmity to man ; usual method of sailors to take them ; no animal harder to kill ; how killed by the African negroes ; the remora, or sucking-fish, sticks to it ; for what purpose : brings forth living young ; Rondeletius says, the female of the blue shark lets her brood, when in danger, swim down her throat, and shelter in her belly, iii. 363 to 368.

Sheldrake, a variety of the pond-duck ; supposed a native of England, iii. 308.

Sheath-fish, the silurus, of the prickly-finned abdominal kind, iii. 401.

Sheep, the author saw one that would eat flesh, i. 408; proper care taken of the animal, produces favourable alterations in the fleeces here and in Syria, 409; in course of time impoverish the pasturage, ii. 42; in the domestic state, stupid, most defenceless, and inoffensive; those without horns more dull and heavy than the rest; those with longest and finest fleeces most subject to disorders; the goat, resembling them in many respects, much their superior; they propagate together as of one family; distinguished from deer, 55, 56; do not appear from old writers to have been bred in early times in Britain; no country produces such sheep as England, larger fleeces, or better for clothing; sheep without horns the best sort; the sheep in its noblest state is in the African desert, or the extensive plains of Siberia; sheep in the savage state; the woolly sheep is only in Europe, and in the temperate provinces of Asia; subsists in cold countries, but not a natural inhabitant of them; the Iceland sheep have four, and sometimes eight horns; with broad tails, common in Tartary, Arabia, Persia, Barbary, Syria, and Egypt; the tail often weighs from twenty to thirty pounds; those called strepsicheros, natives of the Archipelago; Guinea sheep described; bring forth one or two at a time, sometimes three or four; bear their young five months, 58 to 63; the intestines thirty times the length of their body, 152; in Syria and Persia remarkable for fine gloss, length, and softness of hair, 153. See *Mouflon*.

Shells (fossil) found in all places near to and distant from the sea, upon the surface of the earth, on the tops of mountains, or at different depths, digging for marble, chalk, or other terrestrial matters, so compact as to preserve these shells from decay, i. 18; various kinds found at a hundred miles from the sea, at Touraine in France; a continued bed of oyster-shells found through the whole circumference of five or six acres of ground near Reading, in Berkshire; shells found petrified in all the Alpine rocks, in the Pyrenees, on the hills of France, England, and Flanders; a floor or pavement of petrified shells found in Kent, near the Medway; shells always remaining in the deep; easier to believe fossil-shells bred in fresh water, than that the sea for a long time covered the tops of high mountains, i. 30 to 35; methods of conveying a just idea of the formation of sea-shells and garden-shells; usual way of accounting for different colouring in shells; they assume every colour but blue; *stairs-shell*, or *admiral-shell*, not more precious for their scarceness, than pearls for their beauty; collections of shells have their use; naturally classed by Aristotle; places where shells are found, and substances of which they are composed; supposition that all earths fermenting with vinegar are composed of shells crumbled down to one mass; what shells most valuable; sea-shells exceed land or fossil-shells in beauty; some living land-shells not inferior in beauty to fresh-water shells; great variety of fossil or extraneous shells; different states of preservation; every shell the spoil of some animal; no matter how parted from the sea, iv. 34 to 41.

Shells of the sea, of all sea-shells that of the nautilus the thinnest and most easily pierced, iv. 52; all bivalved shells furnish pearls, and their insides resemble and afford that substance called mother-of-pearl, 61.

Shells (animal) of the armadillo or tatou, one of the most striking curiosities in natural history, ii. 323; turtle-shells of an amazing magnitude, iv. 29.

Shetland Isles, amazing quantities of herrings appearing off these islands, iii. 411

Short-heads, name given by sailors to the young of the whale, iii. 344.

Shoveller, species of the crane kind; inhabitants of the Cape of Good Hope respect it as the ancient Egyptians did their Ibis; its nest and eggs, iii. 244.

Shoulders, high in sickly persons; people dying are seen with their shoulders drawn up; shoulders in women narrower than in men, i. 286, 289.

Showers, shower of hail in 1510: its description, i. 216; of stones, fishes, and ivy-berries, raised into the air by tempests in one country, and falling at a distance like rain to astonish another, 224.

Siberia, the isatis found in this country, and seldom in milder climates, ii. 221; the sable resembling the martin found in it, 240; enormous tusks found lodged in the sandy banks of its rivers, 405.

Sighs, in what manner produced; when invigorated produce sobbing, i. 280.

Sight of old men indistinct for bodies close to them, but more precise for ob-

jects at a distance from them, and why, i. 316; of birds exceeds that of other animals, and excels in strength and precision; a kite, from an imperceptible height in the clouds, sees its prey, and darts on it with unerring aim, iii. 40; of birds that prey by day, astonishingly quick, and in such as ravage by night, so fitted as to discern objects in darkness with precision, 78.

Signs of death, uncertainty of them ought to make every one cautious of giving up a friend as dead, and exposing him to real death, or a premature interment, i. 344.

Silks brought to Jamaica, and there exposed to the air, rot while they preserve their colour; but kept from air, retain their strength and gloss, i. 181.

Silk manufactures established in Europe, in the beginning of the twelfth century, by Roger of Sicily, iv. 251.

Silkworm, the most serviceable of all such creatures, iv. 226; its real history unknown among the Romans to the time of Justinian, and supposed only brought into Europe in the twelfth century; two methods of breeding them; Pausanias's description of this worm; changes its skin in three weeks or a month; gummy fluid forming the threads; preparations made before spinning the web; the cone or ball of silk described; efforts to burst the cone; free from confinement, it neither flies or eats; few of these animals suffered to come to a state of maturity, and why, 250 to 256.

Silurus, the sheath-fish, of the prickly-finned abdominal kind, iii. 401.

Simeon, said to have lived a hundred and twelve years, i. 302.

Sinews of the rein-deer, the strongest kind of sewing thread, ii. 127.

Single, name of the tail of the stag, ii. 98.

Siskin, singing bird of the sparrow kind, with a thick and short bill, iii. 197.

Size of men varies considerably; the human body often differs from itself; the same person taller in the morning than at night; sometimes the difference is an inch; this first perceived in England by a recruiting-officer; men are all tall from five feet eight inches to six feet high; middle size from five feet to five feet eight, i. 289, 299; Maximin, the emperor, above nine feet in height, 294; approaching towards the north pole, the natives diminish proportionably, growing less and less in higher latitudes, 348.

Skeleton of the bat, in some measure, resembles that of man, iii. 328; of the elephant, some lately discovered of an enormous size, on the banks of the Ohio, in America, ii. 407.

Skin, the only part of the body that age does not harden; whence its wrinkles proceed, i. 338; of the rein-deer, ii. 127; of the tiger, 169; of the black fox, 217; most valuable part of the martin's skin; of all, that of the sable most coveted, and held in highest esteem, the fur surpassing all, 239, 240; of the civet, 248; of the ondatra also very valuable, 229; of the mole, 307; of the hedgehog, 312; of the elephant, 398; of the rhinoceros, 408; of the ostrich, iii. 68; of the great Greenland whale, 342.

Skink, an animal called one of the polecats of America, ii. 243.

Skull-fish, name of the whale above two years old, iii. 344.

Slatberg, in Iceland, (in the lands of) there stood a declivity, and the earth of it was found sliding down the hill upon the subjacent plain, i. 95.

Sleep, with some of the lower animals, takes up the greatest part of their lives; man the only creature requiring sleep from double motives, for the refreshment of the mental and of the bodily frame; want of it produces madness; procured to man with more difficulty than to other animals; in what manner sleep fetters us for hours together, according to Rohault; bodily labour demands a less quantity of it than mental; the famous Philip Barreter slept twelve hours in the twenty-four; numberless instances of persons who, asleep, performed many ordinary duties of their calling; and, with ridiculous industry, completed by night what they failed doing by day; remarkable instance related in the German Ephemerides. See *Arlotto*, i. 303 to 308.

Sloth, two different kinds of that animal, the ai and the unan; both seem the meanest and most ill-formed of all animals that chew the cud; formed by nature to climb; they get up a tree with pain, but utterly unable to descend, drop from the branches to the ground; strip a tree of its verdure in less than a fortnight, after-

wards devour the bark, and in a short time kill what might prove their support; every step taken, sends forth a plaintive melancholy cry; like birds, have but one vent for propagation, excrement, and urine; their look piteous, to move compassion, accompanied with tears, that dissuade injuring so wretched a being; one fastened by its feet to a pole, suspended across two beams, remained forty days without meat, drink, or sleep; an amazing instance of strength in the feet instanced, iii. 26 to 28.

Slot, term for the print of the hoof of the stag, ii. 93.

Slow, name given by some to the blind worm, iv. 151.

Smell, the musky not properly a characteristic mark of any kind of animal, ii. 54; none more permanent than musk, 85; strong offensive smell of foxes often the cause of their death, 213; of the genet, not endured by mice and rats, 247.

Smelling, Bramins of India have a power of smelling equal to what is in other creatures; can smell the water they drink, to us quite inodorous; negroes of the Antilles by smell distinguish the footsteps of a Frenchman from those of a negro; gives often false intelligence; natives of different countries, or different natives of the same, differ widely in that sense; instances of it; mixtures of bodies void of odour produce powerful smells; a slight cold blunts all smelling; smallest changes in man makes great alteration in this sense, i. 323, 329; delicacy of smelling in birds instanced in ducks, iii. 41. See *Senses*.

Smile, Fielding asserts, a person with a steady glowering smile never failed to prove himself a rogue, i. 231.

Snail (garden) is surprisingly fitted for the life it is to live; organs of life it possesses in common with animals; and what peculiar to itself; every snail at once male and female; and while it impregnates another, is impregnated in turn; coupling of these animals; possessed of the power of mending the shell; and come to full growth they cannot make a new one; Swammerdam's experiment to this purpose; salt destroys them, so does soot; continue in a torpid state during the severity of winter; so great their multiplication in some years, that gardeners imagine they burst from the earth; wet seasons favourable to their production; *sea snail*, *fresh-water snail*, and *land snail*; common garden snail compared with the fresh-water snail and sea snail; fresh water snail brings forth young alive, with shells upon their backs; at all times of the year, fresh-water snails opened, are pregnant with eggs, or with living snails, or with both together; sea snails found viviparous, others lay eggs; manner in which the sea snails impregnate each other; different orifices or verges of snails; the difference between land and sea snails; of the trochus kind, have no mouth; their trunk; are among snails, as the tiger, the eagle, or the shark, among beasts, birds, and fishes; food of all sea snails lies at the bottom; of sea snails, that most frequently swimming upon the surface, whose shell is thinnest, and most easily pierced, is the nautilus; its description; peculiarity by which the nautilus is most distinguished, iv. 42 to 54.

Snail, (sea) a cartilaginous fish described, iii. 391.

Snake, (black) its description and food; are oviparous, iv. 150. See *Serpents*.

Snipe, a water-bird of passage; its description; iii. 253, 254.

Snow, inhabitants of places where fields are continually white with snow, generally become blind before their usual course of nature, i. 17.

Snow-slips, a family in Germany lived for a fortnight beneath one, i. 96.

Sobbing is a sigh still more invigorated, i. 280.

Soland goose, iii. 277. See *Bass* and *Gannet*.

Soldier-crab, iv. 17. See *Crab*.

Solfatara, a valley near Naples; exhibits the appearance of an earthquake, i. 75.

Soot, as well as salt, will destroy snails, iv. 46.

Sore, name the hunters give the buck the fourth year, ii. 106.

Sorel, the hunters' name for the buck the third year, ii. 106.

Sound conveyed by air is lost in vacuo, i. 193; sounding bodies of two kinds, inelastic returning a single sound, and elastic rendering a succession of sounds; laws of the reflection of sound not so well understood as those of light; persons of a bad ear oft deceived as to the side whence sound comes; trumpets made to increase sounds, 324, 325.

Source, rivers have their source in mountains, or elevated lakes, i. 118.

Southminster marshes over-run with an army of mice, iii. 114.

Spalanzani, his experiments concerning the power of reproductions in animals, iv. 313.

Spaniards, the only people in Europe acquainted with the value of the ass, ii. 29.

Spaniels, land and water, the offspring of the beagle, transported into Spain or Barbary, so altered, and converted there; a dog of the generous kind; the land-spaniel; the water-spaniel, ii. 191, 193.

Spanish flies described; their use in medicine, and as blisters. See *Cantharides*, iv. 298.

Sparrows, house-sparrow; various birds of the sparrow kind; their food; songsters of this class; their migrations, iii. 196 to 198; a male and its mate, that have young, destroy above three thousand caterpillars in a week, iv. 248.

Sparrow-hawk, one of the baser race of hawks, iii. 98; taught to fly at game, but little obtained from its efforts; lately asserted, upon respectable authority, the boldest of all for the pleasures of the chase, 104.

Sparus, the sea-bream, its description, iii. 400.

Spawn, different seasons for fish to deposit their spawn, iii. 334.

Spawning, peculiar preparation of the lamprey for spawning, iii. 382.

Spears, (burning) a peculiar kind of aurora borealis, i. 223.

Spears, the horns of the stag the third year, ii. 98.

Spermaceti, the whole oil of the cachalot easily converted into that concrete; efficacy of spermaceti in medicine very small, iii. 355.

Spermaceti whale, the cachalot, described, iii. 353.

Spiders, in South America and Africa, as large as sparrows, i. 234; the spider for several months together subsists upon a single meal, 298; chief of our native spiders not venomous; Martinico spider's body as large as a hen's egg; manner of making their webs; Lister has distinguished the sexes of this animal; experiment made by Mr. Reaumur to turn their labours to the advantage of man; gloves made from their webs; found it impracticable to rear them, iv. 163 to 171.

Spiders (water) inhabit the bottom, yet never wet, but enclosed in a bubble of air surrounding them on all sides, iv. 171.

Spinal marrow and the brain, the parts first seen begun in the embryo, i. 310.

Spinous class of fishes already extended to four hundred sorts, iii. 395; Gouan's system and arrangement of the various sorts of spinous fishes, 397; their general leading marks and difference from others, 405.

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Sponges, opinion of Count Marsigli and others about them; that of Rumph and Jussien set in a clearer light by Mr. Ellis, iv. 324, 325.

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Spouts of water at sea common in the tropical seas, and sometimes in our own; description of one in the Mediterranean by Tournefort; solutions offered for this phenomenon; those called typhons, sometimes seen at land, differ from those at sea described by mariners; description of that observed at Hatfield, in Yorkshire, in 1687; land-spouts sometimes drop in a column of water at once upon the earth, and produce an inundation; they appear in the calmest weather at sea; facts still wanting to form a rational theory of them, i. 224 to 227.

Spoutholes in the cetaceous tribe, described, iii. 337.

Springs of water, experience alone can determine the useful or noxious qualities of every spring, i. 102; one mentioned by Derham, which he never perceived to diminish in the greatest drought, when all ponds in the country were dry for several months, 117.

Squash. See *Polecat*. See *Stinkard*, ii. 243.

Squinting, instances of squinting communicated by a father to his offspring, i. 360.

Squirrel, a ruminating animal, ii. 39; classed as such by Pierius, 257; the kind

has as many varieties as any wild animal; enumeration of some; its way of moving is by bounds; few animals so tender, or so unfit for a change of abode; some live on the tops of trees, others feed on vegetables below, where also they take shelter in storms; description of its qualities, food, and mansion; the martin destroys the squirrel, then takes possession of its mansion, 269 to 272.

Squirrels, Nature particular in the formation of these animals for propagation; in Lapland vast numbers remove from one part to another; method of crossing broad rivers or extensive lakes; the Laplanders eat their flesh; description of the common sort, and of the *gray Virginian* kind; the *Barbary*; *Siberian white*; *Carolina black*; *Brazilian*; *little ground Carolina*, and *New Spain squirrel*; *flying squirrel* more common in America than Europe; its food and mansion, ii. 269 to 274.

Stag, first in rank among quadrupeds; its elegant form described; no obvious difference between the internal structure of the stag and the bull, but to a nice observer; ruminates not so easily as the cow or sheep; reason why; manner of knowing its age; differs in size and horns from a fallow-deer; seldom drinks in winter, and less in spring; different colours of stags; of animals, natives of this climate, none have such a beautiful eye as the stag; horns increase in thickness and height from the second year of age to the eighth; grow differently in stags from sheep and cows; stags castrated when its horns are off, they never grow again; the same operation performed when they are on, they never fall off; one testicle only tied up, he loses the horn of the opposite side; horns resembled to a vegetable substance grafted upon the head of the stag; time of feeling impressions of rut, or desire of copulation; effects the rut causes; stag lives about forty years; voice in the time of rut terrible; and then keeps dogs off intrepidly; a stag and a tiger enclosed in the same area, the stag's defence so bold the tiger was obliged to fly; the stag in rut ventures out to sea from one island to another, and swims best when fattest, ii. 87 to 94; the hind, or female, uses all her arts to conceal her young from him, the most dangerous of her pursuers; stag remaining wild in England, called red deer, found on moors bordering on Cornwall and Devonshire; different names given them according to their ages; terms used by hunters pursuing the stag; the manner of knowing the track of a stag, and that of a hind; he changes his manner of feeding every month; in what manner; swims against the stream; the ancient manner of pursuing him; that of hunting him; and in China; stag of Corsica; a kind called by the ancients *tregelaphus*; Germans call it *bran-deer*, or *brown-deer*; a beautiful stag, thought a native of Sardinia, though perhaps of Africa or the East Indies; its description; stag royal in Mexico; of Canada, brought into the state of domestic tameness, as our sheep, goats, and black cattle, 95 to 104.

Staggard, name of the stag the fourth year, ii. 98.

Stallions, law prohibiting exportation of stallions and mares, ii. 20.

Stanislaus, the exiled king of Poland, had a dwarf at his court, i. 368.

Stare, bird classed with the thrush, distinction from the rest of its tribe; its residence; its eggs; it is easily taught to speak; its food, iii. 201.

Star-fish, general description of the tribe; are also called sea-nettles; cut in pieces, every part survives the operation, becoming a perfect animal, endued with its natural rapacity, iv. 314, 315.

Starling, slender-billed bird of the sparrow kind, living upon insects, iii. 196.

Stars (fixed) supposed by philosophers suns, i. 11.

Stars (falling) meteors or unctuous substances raised from the earth, i. 223.

Statues of antiquity first copied after the human form, now models of it, i. 288.

Stature, middle in men from five feet five to five feet eight inches, i. 289; Mr. Derham observes, probably the same now as at the beginning, 374.

Stellaris, name given by the Latins to the bittern, iii. 244.

Steno, his opinion about the formation of the incipient animal, i. 239.

Stigmata, holes through which caterpillars breathe, iv. 232.

Stickleback, the gasterosteus of the prickly-finned thoracic sort, description of this fish, iii. 401; this fish appears in great quantities every seven or eight years in the river Welland, near Spalding; a man employed by a farmer to take them, for manuring his grounds, got for a considerable time four shillings a day, selling them at a halfpenny a bushel, 414.

Stillicon, his two daughters, buried with much finery, found eleven hundred years after in good preservation, excepting the pearls, iv. 63, 64.

Stinkard, name given by our sailors to one or two animals of the weasel kind, chiefly found in America, ii. 243; and by the savages of Canada to the musk-rat, 299.

Stint, smaller and shorter billed water-bird of the crane kind, iii. 253.

Stoat, the ermine, its description, ii. 228.

Stomach, Nature has contracted the stomach of animals of the forest suitable to their precarious way of living, i. 298; proportioned to the quality of the animal's food, or the ease of obtaining it; those who chew the cud have four stomachs; yet several of those have but two in Africa, 402; the camel has a fifth stomach, as a reservoir of water for occasional use, iii. 8; birds have properly but one stomach, yet this is different in different kinds, 42.

Stork, true difference between it and the crane; arc birds of passage, returning into Europe in March; the Dutch attentive to the preservation of the stork in their republic, the bird protected by laws and the prejudices of the people; countries where found; ancient Egyptians' regard for this bird carried to adoration; the ancient ibis supposed, the same which at present bears the same name, iii. 231, to 233.

Storms, foretold by the barometer; above their region all is calm and serene; rise to the tops of the highest mountains; confirmed by those who have been on the Andes, and by the deep snows that crown them; with powerful effects, do not show great speed, i. 203 to 205; one most dreadful, in Herefordshire, in 1697; description of it, 215; do not terrify goats, ii. 66.

Stones, showers of stones raised by storms in one country, carried to another, i. 224.

Stone-chatter, slender-billed bird of the sparrow kind, iii. 196; migrates, 198.

Stove, expeditious in bringing the animal in the egg to perfection, i. 245.

Strabism, an inequality of sight, and particular cast of the eye; whence it proceeds, i. 316.

Stream of rivers, more rapid, in proportion as its channel is diminished, and why, i. 120.

Strength, a just way of estimating human strength by perseverance and agility of motions; not hereditary; prodigies of it; Maximin the emperor described; instances of it in Milo, and also in Athanatus; estimation of strength in animals by the bulk of their muscles very fallacious; thin and raw-boned men being generally stronger and more powerful than those seemingly more muscular; women much inferior in strength to men; of man less valuable since the invention of gunpowder, of new machines, and the application of the power of animals to the purposes of life; the comparative strength of a horse, measured, not by what he can carry, but by what he can draw, i. 292 to 296; of the inhabitants round the poles is amazing, 348.

Stromateus, a soft-finned apodal fish, described, iii. 402.

Struthophagi, nations so called from their fondness of the flesh of the ostrich, iii. 67.

Stuffs, made of hair of animals about Angora, ii. 68; half composed of silk forbid to be worn at home, as a luxurious refinement, iv. 250.

Stunts, name given to whales at the age of two years, iii. 344.

Sturgeon, a cartilaginous fish, of a considerable size, yet flies terrified from the smallest fishes; its description; three kinds of it; the largest caught in Great Britain taken in the Eske, where frequently found weighing four hundred and fifty pounds; live in society among themselves; and Gesner has seen them shoal together at the notes of a trumpet; in the water it is one of the strongest fishes, and often breaks the nets that enclose it; but its head once raised above water, its activity ceases; two methods of preparing it; that from America not so good as from the North of Europe; caviar made with the roe of all kinds of sturgeon, manner of making it, iii. 384 to 388.

Sucking-fish, the remora, sticks to the shark; called the shark's pilot, iii. 368.

Sucking-fish, the echineis, a soft-finned thoracic fish; its description, iii. 403.

Suction, from whence that amazing power in the lamprey arises, iii. 381, 386.

Sugar, the white sort in the tropical climates sometimes full of maggots, i. 182.

Sulphur, with iron-filings kneaded together into a paste, with water, when heating, produce a flame, i. 50.

Sun, mock suns and other meteors seen in the Alps, i. 87; in the polar regions, 216; reflected upon opposite clouds, appear like three or four real suns in the firmament; real sun always readily known by superior brightness; the rainbow also different in those countries, 221; not easy to conceive how it whitens wax and linen, and darkens the human complexion, 358.

Sun-fish, an anomalous cartilaginous fish, like a bulky head, iii. 389.

Surf of the sea, name the mariners give waves breaking against the shore, i. 159.

Surinam rat, the phalanger, a small monkey, described, ii. 389.

Surinam toad, the pipal, a hideous toad; its description, iv. 90.

Surmalot, with Mr. Buffon, the great rat, a hateful rapacious creature, ii. 291.

Surmulet, the mullus, a spinous fish; its description, iii. 400.

Swallows, time of their migrations; departure of some, and retreat of others into old walls, from the inclemencies of winter, wrap the migrations of birds in great obscurity, iii. 54; experiment of Mr. Buffon to this purpose, 55; with us birds of passage; bred in Upper Egypt and the land of Java, and never disappear, 199; *house-swallow*; characteristics of the swallow tribe; at the end of September they depart; those migrating first seen in Africa, in the beginning of October, having performed their journey in seven days; sometimes seen, interrupted by contrary winds, wavering in their course at sea, and lighting upon the ships in their passage; a doubt whether all swallows thus migrate, or some others of this species externally alike, and internally different, be differently affected by the approach of winter; observations made to this purpose by Reaumur, Frisch, and Klein; Chinese pluck their nests from rocks, and send great numbers into the East Indies for sale; gluttons esteem them great delicacies, dissolved in chicken or mutton broth; the number of their eggs, 213 to 217.

Swallow of Ternate, or *God's bird*, the bird of Paradise, described, iii. 169.

Swanmerdam lent attention to testaceous animals, almost exceeding credibility, iv. 42.

Swan, a stately web-footed water-fowl; doubt whether the tame kind be in a state of nature; none found in Europe; the wild swan, though strongly resembling it in colour and form, yet another bird; differences between wild and tame swans; the tame most silent, the wild has a loud and disagreeable note; from thence called the hooper; accounts sufficient to suspend an opinion of its musical abilities; two months hatching, and a year growing to proper size; longest in the shell of any bird; said to live three hundred years; by an act of Edward IV. the son of the king was allowed to keep a swan, and no others, unless possessed of five marks a year; punishment for taking their eggs, imprisonment for a year and a day, and a fine at the king's will; places which abound with them, iii. 299 to 303.

Swarms, (*bee-hive*) several swarms in the year, the first always the best, iv. 269.

Sweden, asses a sort of rarity in Sweden, ii. 29.

Sweetmeats, in tropical climates, exposed by day in the sun, to prevent their putrefying by the night air, i. 182.

Swift, a bird of the swallow kind; peculiar position of the toes, iii. 213.

Swiftness of savages, many surprising stories about it, i. 292.

Sword-fish encounters the whale, iii. 346; its description, 398, 399.

Syagushes, carnivorous animals, like the jackal and wolf; hunt in packs, i. 405.

Symmetry and proportion of the human body, i. 273:

Sympathetic affection of yawning; a ridiculous instance of it practised upon professor M'Laurin, at Edinburgh, i. 280.

Synovia, a lubricating liquor in the joints, so called by anatomists, i. 290

Syria, most of its cities destroyed, in 1182, by an earthquake, i. 68.

System, in what manner the harmony of our planetary system is preserved, i. 11; very useful in natural history; books containing them, useful to be consulted, but unnecessary to be read; that of Linnaeus deserves the preference; faults of systematic writers in natural history, 387 to 389; what has given birth to the variety of systems in natural history, 393. See *Gouan*, iii. 398.

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Tabbies, streaked cats, to which the civet's colour is compared, ii. 249.

Tajacu. See *Peccary*, ii. 137.

Tails of sheep a foot broad, and weighing from twenty to thirty pounds, sometimes supported by a board upon wheels, ii. 62.

Talapoin, eighth division of monkeys of the ancient continent, iii. 382.

Talons, in what manner produced in animals, i. 285.

Tamain, a monkey of the second sort of the sagoin kind; description, ii. 383.

Tamandua, an ant-bear, larger and smaller, lives upon ants, iii. 23.

Tamis-bird, one of the names of the Guinea-hen, described, iii. 135.

Tanais, a principal river in Europe, parting it from Asia, i. 123.

Tanrec, of the hedge-hog kind, different enough to constitute another species; covered with prickles, though mixed with hair; only found in the East Indies; Indians consider its flesh a delicacy, ii. 313.

Tapeti, the Brazilian rabbit. See *Rabbit*, ii. 264.

Tapir, the largest animal of America, not comparable to the elephant of Africa in size, i. 410; considered as the hippopotamus of the new continent; its description, iii. 20.

Tar, used by the Laplanders for all disorders of the rein-deer, ii. 128.

Tarantula, the bite of this animal, and its cure by music, all a deception; instance of it, i. 323; native of Apulia in Italy; description, iv. 172.

Tarcel, name falconers give the male bird of prey; and why, iii. 80.

Tariguagua, ruggedness of road from it up to the Andes, i. 89.

Tarnassar, great bird in the East Indies, no other than the condor, iii. 90.

Tarsier, a monkey, last of the class of the opossum kinds, ii. 389.

Tartars, their religion consists in part by managing their whiskers; they waged a bloody war with the Persians as infidels, for not giving the whiskers the orthodox cut, i. 282, 283; Samoeid, first distinct race of men round the pole, described, 346; the Ostiac, a race travelled down from the north, and originally sprung from minute savages, 349.

Tartary comprehends great part of Asia; natives and manners, i. 349, 350.

Taste, in all substances, on mountain tops, and valley bottoms, i. 194; to determine somewhat upon the nature of tastes, bodies to be tasted must be moistened, or dissolved by saliva, to produce a sensation; the tongue and body to be tasted, being dry, no taste ensues; relish of tastes stronger in children than in persons advanced in life, 330.

Tatou, or armadillo, a quadruped; covered with shells, ii. 323.

Tatu-apara, first of the kinds of the armadillo; the second, the tatou of Ray, or the encoubert of Buffon; the third, the tatouette; their diversities described, ii. 327.

Teal, smallest bird of the duck kind distinguished, iii. 308.

Teats, great variety of them in animals; their form, and how placed, i. 286.

Teeth in cows, eight cutting-teeth in their lower jaw, ii. 42.

Teeth, coloured, the passion for them in China and Japan; in some parts of India black teeth desired with ardour, i. 271; teeth of animals various; how formed in man, 285; of the elephant, shed like horns of deer, or obtained, after death, not yet known; natives of Africa find them in their forests; of the narwhale surpass ivory; ascribed to a different animal; curiosity, and the desire of scarce things, made them very valuable a century ago, iii. 352; the white shark is said to have one hundred and forty-four teeth, 364.

Tegg, what the hunters call the doe the second year, ii. 106.

Tejuguacu, tockey, and eordyle, all of the lizard kind, gradually less, fill up the chasm between the crocodile and the African iguana, iv. 111.

Tempests, loudest formed by united contributions of minerals, vegetables, and animals, increasing the streams of air fleeting round the globe, i. 195; frequent under the tropics, and a space beyond them, 205; in Arabia and Africa described, 209.

Teneriff (the peak of) a mile and a half perpendicular from the sea, i. 192.

Tendrac, an animal less than a mole, different from the hedge-hog, and a different species; description; grunt like hogs, and love to be near water, ii. 312.

- Ternate*, a Molucca island, its swallow taken for the bird of paradise, iii. 169.
- Terrier*, first division of dogs of the generous kind, used for hunting, ii. 192.
- Testaceous* substances on the tops of mountains, and in the heart of marble, i. 18.
- Thales*, the philosopher, held all things made of water, i. 99.
- Thames* water, and that of the Indus, most light and wholesome, i. 101.
- Theories* of the earth, those of the most celebrated authors, i. 20.
- Theory* of evaporation, for the formation of clouds, i. 211, 212; other theories upon that subject; theory of sympathy, of Father Malbranche, beautiful upon monstrous productions, 364.
- Therasia*, an island, appeared unexpectedly to mariners, i. 77.
- Thermometer* measures heat and cold by a fixed standard; description, i. 105.
- Theutys*, a prickly-finned abdominal fish, description of it, iii. 401.
- Thibet*, the musk from thence reckoned the best; sells at 14*s.* the ounce, ii. 87; the peacock there the most beautiful of the feathered creation, iii. 127.
- Thoracic fish*, that which has the ventral fins directly under the pectoral fins, iii. 398.
- Throat* of the great Greenland whale is so narrow that any animal larger than a herring could not enter, iii. 345; but that of the cachalot can with great ease swallow an ox, 353; that of the shark most amazing, 364.
- Thrush*, a slender-billed bird of the sparrow kind, iii. 196; its distinction from all of the kind; its song very fine; the largest of the kind with a musical voice; its food, 200.
- Thumb-footed* shell-fish, testaceous, described, iv. 67.
- Thunder*, Ulloa heard it rolling beneath him when upon the Andes, i. 91; its cloud always moves against the wind, 203; a sound produced by the opposition of two clouds, and continued by reverberated echo; thunder clears the air and kills insects noxious to vegetation, 215.
- Thyroid* cartilage forms a lump upon the wind-pipe in men, not seen in women, i. 285.
- Tides*, with Pliny, were influenced partly by the sun, and in a greater degree by the moon; Kepler first conjectured attraction the principal cause of them; the precise manner discovered by Newton; high tides happen at the same time, on opposite sides of the globe, where waters are farthest from the moon; solar and lunar tides; greatest in siziges, least in quadratures; flows strongest in narrowest places; Mediterranean, Baltic, and Black Sea, no sensible tides, the gulph of Venice excepted, and why; higher in the torrid zone than in the rest of the ocean; greatest in the river Indus, rising thirty feet; remarkably high on the coasts of Malay, in the straits of Sunda, the red Sea, the gulph of St. Lawrence, along the coast of China and Japan, at Panama, and in the gulph of Bengal; those at Tonquin most remarkable in the world; one tide and one ebb, in twenty-four hours; twice in each month no tide at all; in the straits of Magellan it rises twenty feet, flows six hours, and the ebb lasts but two hours, i. 146 to 151.
- Tiger* leaps twenty feet at a spring, i. 405; defeated by a stag, ii. 94; taught to defend herds, 145; attacks the lion, 160; often bigger than the lion; nothing tames it; perfectly resembles the cat; three sorts in Sunda Rajah's dominions; the royal tiger carries a buffalo over its shoulder to its den; said to follow the rhinoceros for its excrements; other tales about it; under Augustus, a tiger an extraordinary sight; the species scarce; opinion of Varro, that it was never taken alive; the ancients commended it for beauty among quadrupeds, equal to that of the peacock among birds; supposed to bring forth four or five young at a time; expresses his resentment at the lion; the skin esteemed in the east, particularly in China; battle of one tiger and three elephants at Siam described; another between a crocodile; the red tiger, Mr. Buffon's cougar; common in Guinea, Brasil, Paraguay, and other parts of South America; the flesh superior to mutton, 164 to 172; and esteemed by the negroes as a dainty, 198.
- Tiger-cat*, or cat-a-mountain, a beautiful animal of its kind, ii. 176.
- Tigris*, a great river in Asia, lost under mount Taurus, i. 131.
- Tingitanius*, and Egyptians, famous for fine horses, ii. 13.
- Tipula* (water) of the second order of insects; description of it, iv. 220.
- Tipula*, long-legged gnat, description of this insect, iv. 303.

Titmouse, a slender-billed bird of the sparrow kind, iii. 196.

Toad, some bigger than ducks, i. 234; their flesh is a delicacy on the coast of Guinea, ii. 198; differences between the frog and it, as to figure and conformation, iv. 72; their nature, appetites, and food; coupling; difficulty in bringing forth curious particulars relating to this animal; one swallowing a bee alive, the stomach stung, and the insect vomited up again; toads not venomous; accounts of toads taken inwardly; difficult to be killed; lives for centuries in a rock, or within an oak, without access, nourishment, or air, and yet found alive and perfect; accounts of this; toads suck cancerous breasts, and perform a cure; progress of this operation; the rubeth, the land-toad, alone has the property of sucking; doubtful whether they die by internal or external application of the cancerous matter; description of the Surinam toad, called pipal, iv. 81 to 90.

Tococo, sort of cry, given as a name in Canada to the flamingo, iii. 250.

Toves, usually four in all animals of the poultry kind; in a species of cock amount to five, iii. 119.

Tone, a continuing tone produced from a non-elastic body, repeating blows quick and often; of a sonorous body made to depend upon the number of vibrations, not the impelling force, is mistaking an effect for a cause; half tones rejected in all countries where music is in its infancy, as in China, i. 319 to 321.

Tongres, a city in the county of Liege, formerly encompassed by the sea, and at present thirty-five leagues distant from it, i. 160.

Tongue of the rein-deer a great delicacy, ii. 127; the flamingo's much celebrated, and larger than that of any bird, iii. 249; of the Great Greenland whale, fills several hogsheads with blubber, 342.

Tonquin, tides there the most remarkable in the world, i. 150.

Tornado, a formidable tempest, so called by the Spaniards, i. 208.

Torpedo, its description; by an unaccountable power, the instant touched even with a stick, when immediately taken out of the sea, it numbs the hand and arm, or whole body; the shock resembles an electrical stroke; sudden, tingling, and painful; accounts by Kempfer of numbness produced by it; he believes holding in the breath prevents the violence; implicit belief of efficacy would be painfully undeceived; this power not exerted upon every occasion; trials by Reaumur to this purpose; opinions concerning the cause of this strange effect; the fish dead, the power destroyed, then handled or eaten with security; the power not extended to the degree some believe, reaching fishermen at the end of a line, or numbing fishes in the same pond; ridiculous excess of this numbing quality in the history of Abyssinia, by Godignus; Lorenzini, from experiments, is convinced the power resides in two thin muscles of the back; several fishes have acquired the name of the torpedo, possessed of the same quality; Moore's and Condamine's accounts of them, iii. 376 to 380.

Tortoise ranked among crustaceous fishes, though superior to them all; amphibious, according to Seba; distinguished into two classes, the *land-tortoise*, and the *sea-turtle*; differ more in habits than conformation; description; principal distinctions; varieties are, *trunk-turtle*, *loggerhead*, *hawksbill*, and *green turtle*; all generally found in warm countries, without retiring; the shell never changes, and growing with the body, is formed in pieces; a defence against dangerous attacks; the blood warm and red; how circulated; turtle larger than tortoise; weighs from fifty to five hundred pounds; ancients speak of some of amazing sizes; live to 80 and 120 years; can live without limbs, head or brain, proved by experiments of Rhedi; moves with great weight upon it; hears distinctly by means of an auditory conduit opening into the mouth; sighs when ill situated, and shed tears when distressed; torpid during winter, sleeping in some cave, and breathing imperceptibly; account of a land-tortoise caught in a canal at Amsterdam; and of a turtle in the Loire, in 1729; the food chiefly vegetables, though believed to eat insects, snails, and bugs, iv. 18 to 32.

Toucan, a bird of the pie kind, has a bill as large as its body; of five varieties; the red-beaked described; its food; has birds, men, monkeys, and serpents, to guard against; scoops out its nest into the hollow of some tree; leaves scarce room to go in and out, and with its great beak guards that entrance, found only in the warm parts of South America, where it is valued for its tender and nourish-

ing flesh, and the beauty of its plumage, particularly the breast, the skin of which the Indians dry, and glue to their cheeks for beauty, iii. 160 to 162.

Touch, those parts of the body most exercised in touching, acquire the greatest accuracy; the fingers, by long habit, not from a greater quantity of nerves, become masters in the art, i. 331.

Tournefort describes a spout seen in the Mediterranean, i. 224.

Trachinus, the weaver, a prickly-finned jugular fish, described, iii. 399.

Trachipterus, the sabre, a prickly-finned thoracic fish; its description, iii. 401.

Track of a stag, manner of knowing it, and that of a hind, ii. 99.

Tragelaphus, name of the stag with the ancients, ii. 103.

Traps for horses, used by the Arabians for the wild sort, ii. 9; for wild asses, used in the Archipelago, 24.

Treacle, food for bees during the winter, when robbed of their honey, iv. 263.

Trees (fossil) in the body of solid rocks, and deep under the earth upon which they once grew; conjectures upon this subject, i. 35; found in quantities at the mouth of the river Ness, in Flanders, at the depth of fifty feet, 163; laying twenty feet deep under ground for many ages, become hard and tough, proofs of alternate overflowings and desertions of the sea, 165; usually of the largest kinds in wild uncultivated wildernesses, in the state of rude nature, 236; the banana and plantain, so immense as to be inimically inhabited by monkeys, snakes, and birds of the most delightful plumage, iii. 166; age known by the number of their circles, 332.

Trembley, first discovered in the polypus the power of reproduction, iv. 313.

Trichurus, a prickly-finned apodal fish, of a sword-like form, iii. 398.

Trigla, the gurnard, of a spinous-kind; description of this fish, iii. 400.

Trochus. See *Sea-snail*.

Troglodyte of Bontius, is the ouran-outang, or wild man of the woods, ii. 357.

Troglodytes, the mountain of that name in Arabia, has a passage made through it by a disruption, as if artificial, i. 94.

Tropical seas, under them, and for a good space beyond, tempests are frequent, and their effects anticipated, i. 205; are those in which spouts are seen very commonly, 224; tropics supposed by Linnæus the native spot of man, and the northern climates only places of sojourning for them; an argument sufficient to prove the contrary, 360; the climates so hot, the dogs in process of time lose the delicacy of their scent entirely, and why, ii. 179.

Trumpets increase sounds in the same manner as the telescope does bodies; persons hard of hearing find the same advantage in the trumpet made for this purpose that short-sighted persons do from glasses; were they further enlarged, they could be used to advantage only in a place of solitude and stillness, as the multitude of sounds would produce tumult and confusion, i. 325.

Trunks of animals, that of the elephant described, ii. 395; that of the gnat may justly be deemed one of Nature's master-pieces, iv. 305.

Trygon, the fire-flare, the enchantress Circe armed her son with a spear headed with the spine of this fish, iii. 375.

Tubes of glass, drawn as fine as a hair, still preserve their hollow within, i. 113.

Tubular vessels, discovered by Fallopius, and called his tubes, i. 239.

Tufted duck, a variety of the kind, native of Europe, iii. 308.

Tumble-dung, a strong beetle, remarkable for make and manners, iv. 296.

Tumbler, in the division of Dr. Caius, a dog of the first class, or generous kind; supposed the lurcher, and described, ii. 193.

Turbinated shells are univalves, and the first kind of Aristotle's divisions, iv. 39.

Turbits, variety of the tame pigeons, obtained by cross breed, iii. 186.

Turbots (and Rays) extremely delicate in their choice of baits; a piece of her-ring or haddock, twelve hours out of the sea, and used as a bait, will not be touched, iii. 374.

Turkey, bird of the poultry kind; its native country disputed; arguments for the old and new continent; first seen in France in the reign of Francis I. and in England in the reign of Henry VIII.; its tenderness with us, when young, argues not for our climate; in the wild state, hardy and numerous in the snowy forests of Canada; also larger and more beautiful than in the domestic state; the savages

weave the feathers into clokes, and fashion them into fans and umbrellas; hunting the turkey a principal diversion with them, its flesh chiefly supporting their families; manner of hunting; the cock's antipathy to red; manner of increasing their animosity for diversion; the female gentler, and particularly fond of eggs of ants and caterpillars; lays eighteen or twenty eggs; the young very tender at first; the hen's care of her young at the sight of a bird of prey; in Norfolk weigh thirty pounds; in the East Indies grow to weigh sixty pounds, iii. 127 to 131.

Turkey, in Asia, has in different parts horses of almost all races, ii. 16; lions found to diminish in number in this country, 154.

Turnings of rivers more numerous as they approach the sea, become indications through trackless lands; the bends increasing, form different channels and mouths into the sea, as the Danube, Nile, Wolga, i. 120.

Turnspit, a dog of the mongrel kind, ii. 192.

Turnstone, a small bird of the crane kind, iii. 253.

Turtle-dove, one of the ruminating birds, ii. 39. See *Pigeon*.

Turtle, prepares for laying, and deposits her eggs in the sand, where, in twenty-six days, they are hatched by the sun; lays from 150 to 200 in a season; the young run by instinct into the sea; ignorant of all danger; propagated on shore only; comes from sea on purpose in coupling season; female is passive and reluctant; the male is slow, but grasps so fast nothing can loose the hold, iy. 30, 31.

Tusks, those of a boar sometimes a foot long, ii. 131; of the babyrouessa a fine ivory, smoother and whiter than the elephant's, but not so hard; of enormous size, 143; of castrated animals scarce appear without the lips; those of a boar broken, abate his fierceness and venery; producing nearly the same effect as castration, 144; of the mammoth weigh four hundred pounds; those of the elephant from Africa two hundred and fifty; some remarkable lately found near the Ohio, and Miume, in America; Dr. Hunter thinks them of a larger animal than the elephant, 407, 408; of the narwhale, or sea-unicorn, a cetaceous fish with teeth, from nine to fourteen feet long, iii. 350.

Twins, never, while infants, so large or strong as children that come singly into the world, and why, i. 257.

Typhons, spouts so called seen at land; differ in several respects from those at sea, i. 226.

Tyson, (*Dr.*) his description of an ouran-outang, by the name of pigmy, the best and most exact. See *Ouran-outang*, ii. 360.

V.

Valerian, a plant of which cats are excessively fond, ii. 149.

Valle, (*Pietro*) his description of Persian horses, ii. 16.

Vampyre, a foreign bat having the reputed faculty of drawing blood from persons asleep, and thus destroying them before they awake. See *Bat*, ii. 333.

Vansire, a sort of ferret of Madagascar, according to Mr. Buffon, ii. 233.

Vapour of metals in mines not so noxious as those of substances with which ores are usually united, such as arsenic, cinnabar, &c.; fragrance of their smell; warnings about them, i. 51; disengaged from water, and attenuated, ascends into the atmosphere, where condensed and acquiring weight as it rolls, falls down in a shape suitable to the temperature of its elevation, 214; most fœtid; breathed from the jaws of the wolf, ii. 212.

Verenius, his opinion upon the formation of rivers, i. 117.

Vari, a kind of maki, last of the monkey kind, its description, iii. 385.

Vault, go to *vault*, phrase used by hunters when the hare enters holes like the rabbit, ii. 261.

Vegetables, vegetable earth; the bed of it, in an inhabited country, must be always diminishing, and why, i. 38; plant with a round bulbous head, which, when dried, becomes of amazing elasticity, grows near the extremity of that region, on mountains where continual snow reigns, 90; like fluids and mineral substances, produce air in a copious manner, 184; tottally unprotected, and exposed to every assailant, 232; those in a dry and sunny soil, are strong and vigorous, rot luxuriant; and those the joint product of heat and moisture, are

luxuriant and tender; different kinds appropriated to different appetites of animals, and why; birds distribute the seeds of vegetables where they fly; vegetables cover the bottom of many parts of the sea, 234; but few noxious; that life as much promoted by human industry as animal life is diminished, 238; the ass gives preference over others to the plantain, ii. 27; the sole food of ruminating animals, 37; animals feeding on vegetables most inoffensive and timorous, 257; some possessed of motion; what constitutes the difference between animal and vegetable life difficult, if not impossible, to answer, iv. 307; not possessed of one power which animals have, the actual ability, or awkward attempt at self-preservation, 308; those called marine grow to a monstrous size, 317.

Vegetation anticipated in its progress by bees, iv. 263.

Velino, a river in Italy, has a cataract of one hundred and fifty feet perpendicular in height, i. 130.

Velocity, not alone the actuating force of winds, but also the degree of density, i. 205.

Velvet-like downy substance upon the skin covering the skull, when the horn of a deer is fallen off, ii. 89.

Velvet-duck, a variety of the common duck, a native of the European dominions, iii. 308.

Venerary, partridges immoderately addicted to it, to an unnatural degree, iii. 143.

Venom, given to the fire-flare by Pliny, Ælian, and Oppian, in a degree to affect the inanimate creation; many reasons to doubt of it, iii. 375.

Venus. See *Nose*, i. 271. See *Face*, i. 374.

Verges, or orifices of the snails, are two, one active, the other passive, iv. 49.

Vermin, hospitals erected by the Bramins in India for the maintenance of all kinds of vermin, i. 352; less found with asses than with other animals covered with hair, ii. 29.

Vertigo, in goats, produced by an immoderate cold, ii. 66.

Vesuvius, its eruptions, the most remarkable described by Valetta; account of another by bishop Berkeley, i. 58 to 62.

Vibrations. See *Tone*, i. 320.

Vizeta, a port of Pomerania, overflowed and destroyed by the Baltic, i. 162.

Violet-crab of the Caribbee islands, most noted for shape, delicacy of flesh, and singularity of manners, iv. 12, 13.

Viper, most vivacious of reptiles; experiment on a viper in the receiver of the air-pump, by Mr. Boyle, i. 183; kept in boxes for six or eight months without any food; its progressive motion, iv. 128; the only animal in Great Britain whose bite is feared; do not devour their young; their food; by the application of olive oil the bite of the viper effectually cured; who first discovered this remedy; effects of the viper's bite, 141 to 143.

Vision, its errors; objects represented upside down and double; the point without sensation; and want of measure for distance, i. 310 to 312.

Viviparous and *oviparous* animals, the two classes for generation and production, all other modes held imaginary and erroneous, i. 242; the blenny, a spinous fish, brings forth two or three hundred young at a time, alive and playing around their parent, iii. 331.

Ukraine, the cattle there become very fat, and considered the largest of all Europe, ii. 47.

Ulloa, his description of South America, of Cotopaxi, of Quito, of the Andes, and a volcano, i. 62, 63.

Umbilical vessels, those of the placenta to the fœtus, i. 253.

Unan, one of the two kinds of the sloth, an animal about the size of a badger, iii. 26.

Underhuug, expression among painters, meaning a prominent under-jaw, i. 279.

Understanding, comparative progress of it; greater in infants than in children of three or four years old, i. 263.

Undulations, in elastic bodies supposed by the ear one continued sound, though in reality many, i. 319.

Unicorn, of the sea, a whale with teeth in the upper-jaw; its description, ii. 350. See *Nurwhale*.

Univalve shells, first division by Aristotle, as to figure, iv. 39.

Volcano, opinions of philosophers and ignorant men about it; three very remarkable in Europe, i. 57; Albouras most famous in Asia; one in the island of Ternate; in the Molucca islands, in Japan, in Java and Sumatra, in the Cape de Verde islands, the peak in Teneriffe, and also in America, 62; marine ones not very frequent, and why, 79.

Uranoscopus, a prickly-finned apodal fish; description of it, iii. 399.

Urchins, or echini, a multivalve shell-fish; manuer of exhibiting this extraordinary animal in every light; its description; some kinds as good eating as the lobster, and its eggs considered as a great delicacy, iv. 65 to 67.

Urinary passages, effects of the cantharides falling principally upon them, iv. 299.

Urine of animals found efficacious in some disorders, ii. 74; of the lion insupportable, 159; of camels, an ingredient in sal ammoniac, iii. 19; of birds differ from that of other animals, 44.

Urson or *Hudson*, of the hedgehog kind, a native of Hudson's bay; its description; sleeps much, and feeds upon the bark of Juniper; in winter snow serve it as drink, and in summer it laps water like a dog, ii. 318.

Urus and *Bison* in fact descendants of one common stock, and naturalists assigning them different classes, have separated what is really united; this wild bull chiefly met with in Lithuania; description of it; generally taken by pit-falls; the breed chiefly occupies the cold and temperate zones, ii. 44 to 47.

Vulture kind, vulture and dog, about Grand Cairo, in Egypt, keep together in a sociable friendly manner, and bring up their young in the same nest, ii. 202; its distinctive marks from other kinds of carnivorous birds; the flesh liked, and dressed for eating, according to Bellonius, iii. 80; of Senegal, said to carry off children, probably no other than the condor, 91; seldom attacks living animals when supplied with dead, 91; description of the golden vulture, 92.

Vulture, bird of prey, next in rank to the eagle, less generous and bold, iii. 91; countries where found; unknown in England; flocks of them near Grand Cairo, not permitted to be destroyed, as they devour all the filth and carrion there; in company with wild dogs, tear and devour together without quarrelling; wonderful method of separating the flesh from the bones, and leaving the skin entire; smell carrion from afar; follow those that hunt for skins alone, and so voraciously fill themselves as merely to waddle, and to want disgorging before they fly away; are little apprehensive of danger, and allow themselves to be approached; an eagle falling in upon their meals, keeps them at a distance till he be satiated; an ox returning home alone, lying down by the way, becomes their prey, and is devoured alive; attempt oxen grazing; destroy lambs, and feed much upon serpents, rabbits, hares, and what game they can overpower; also demolish whole broods of crocodiles; lay two eggs at a time, and produce but once a year; make nests in inaccessible cliffs and remotest places; their flesh lean, stringy, nauseous, tasting and smelling of carrion; the down of their wing makes a pretty kind of fur, commonly sold in Asiatic markets, 92 to 95.

Vultures, (*King of*) description of this bird, iii. 95, 96.

W.

Walfschoos, whales' provender, insects floating in clusters on the surface of the sea, and called *Medusa* by Linnaeus, iii. 315.

Walnut-trees, with walnuts on the stem, leaves, and branches, in exact preservation, found at twenty-six feet depth round the city of Modena, in Italy, i. 164.

Wanderow, a baboon, less than the mandril; its description, ii. 371.

Wappe, a dog of the mongrel kind, in the third division of Dr. Caius, ii. 194.

Warbling of birds, so loud and various in modulation, not easily to be accounted for, iii. 42.

Warine, the Brazilian guariba, largest of the monkey kind in America, ii. 382.

Waree, hog of the isthmus of Darien, described by Wafer, ii. 144.

Wasps, ruminating insects, or seemingly such, ii. 39; their description and habits; their habitations scarcely completed when the inhabitant dies; have two or three hundred queens in a hive; their nest a most curious object; the social

wasps gather no honey themselves, though fond of sweets; fierce battles with the bees, who make up by conduct and numbers the deficiency of prowess; their depredation; where found, other flies desert the place; live but one season; cannot endure winter; before new-year they wither and die, having butchered their young; in every nest one or two females survive; impregnated the preceding season, she begins in spring to lay eggs; and before June produces ten thousand young, which are nursed and fed by her alone; solitary wasp, its manners; provisions made for the young at leaving the egg; the provisions arranged and laid in, the old one closes the hole until dies; the young leaving the egg are scarcely visible; how the life of the young is spent; wasps of Europe innocent compared to those of the tropical climates; description of those of the West Indies, and their habits; pains of their sting insupportable, more terrible than that of a scorpion; the part swells, and people are so disfigured as scarce to be known, iv. 274 to 282.

Water, its parts infinitely small; driven through the pores of gold; penetrating through all substances, except glass; enter the composition of nil bodies, vegetable, animal, and fossil; birds, beasts, fishes, insects, trees, and vegetables, with their parts, have growth from it, and by putrefaction become water; gives all other bodies firmness and durability; a phial, hermetically sealed, kept fifty years, deposited no sediment, and continued transparent; gathered after a thunder-clap, in sultry weather, deposits a real salt; spring water collected from the air; of river waters the Indus and the Thames offer the most light and wholesome; lightness, and not transparency, the test of purity; purest waters distilled from snow on tops of highest mountains; different kinds, and adapted to different constitutions; very transparent; fresh-water at sea, putrefies twice, sometimes thrice, in a voyage; a month at sea, sends up a noisome and dangerous vapour, which takes fire from a flame; elementary water not compounded is ice kept in fusion; dilates in bulk by cold; confirmed by experiments, i. 97 to 106; very compressible and elastic; made to resemble air; a drop of water converted into steam, capable of raising twenty ton weight; keeps its surface level and even; a single quart sufficient to burst a hogshead, and how, 106 to 111; water of the sea heavier and more buoyant than fresh-water, 141.

Water-spouts burst from the sea, and join mists immediately above them, i. 217; most surprising phenomena, dreadful to mariners, and astonishing to observers of nature; common in the tropical seas, sometimes in our own; description of those seen by Tournefort in the Mediterranean, 224; solutions offered for this surprising phenomenon, 225.

Water-wagtail, slender-billed bird of the sparrow kind, iii. 196.

Waves, their luminous appearance in the night, and the cause, i. 144, 145.

Wax, the first fifteen days the bees make more wax than during the rest of the year, iv. 269; of two kinds gathered by common bees; that produced by black bees in tropical climates only used for medicinal purposes, being too soft for candles, as in Europe, 270, 271.

Weasel, a small carnivorous animal; marks common to the kind; these differ from the cat kind in the formation and disposition of claws; differ from the dog kind in a clothing of fur rather than hair; one of the species is like all the rest; this is the smallest of the whole kind; its description; untameable and untractable; hides and sleeps three parts of the day, and sallies forth for prey in the evening; attacks animals much above its own size; catches rats and mice better than cats; also small birds, destroys young poultry, and sucks the eggs; so nimbly runs up high walls, no place is secure from it; in cultivated lands, it thins the number of hurtful vermin; never cries but when struck; all the kind have glands near the anus, secreting a substance foetid in some, and a perfume in others; this most offensive in summer, and insufferable when irritated; one sort in America is by sailors called the stinkard; confined to a cage, is ever in uneasy agitations; must have leave to hide itself; eats only by stealth and will not touch the food until it begins to putrefy; the female makes an easy bed for her young, and generally brings forth from three to five at a time, and with closed eyes; account of a weasel's forming her nest, and bringing forth her young, in the putrid carcase of a wolf; the white ermine found in Great Britain is called the white weasel; its fur

among us of no value, ii. 224 to 231; of the weasel kind, the martin most pleasing, 236; the boldest and most useful of all is the ichneumon, 241. See *Stinhard*, ii. 243.

Weather, the moist alone prevents evaporation, i. 213.

Weathercocks, often erroneous with Derham in regard to upper regions, i. 203.

Weever, the *Trachinus*, a prickly-finned jugular fish, its description, iii. 399; the sting given by its back-fin is poisonous, 422.

Weed, floating over great tracts of the sea, serve as sustenance for many fish, bearing similitude with such vegetables, i. 234.

Weight of the human body often found to differ from itself; instances of it; the difference often amounts to a pound, or sometimes to a pound and a half; not easy to conceive whence this adventitious weight is derived; the porters of Constantinople carry burdens of nine hundred pounds weight; a man able to raise a weight of two thousand pounds; a horse will not carry upon his back above two or three hundred pounds; whence this seeming superiority comes, i. 290, 291.

Well, burning, at Brosely, now stopped, had a fire-damp in it, which would kindle with the flame of a candle, i. 55; some continue full, neither affected by rain or droughts, 164.

Welland, river near Spalding, has amazing shoals of sticklebacks, iii. 414.

Wert, (*Sebald*) a traveller, confirms the existence of giants, on a coast of South America, towards the Straits of Magellan, i. 372.

Whale, the largest animal known; no precise anatomy of this fish yet given; two centuries ago they were described two hundred and fifty feet long; Biscayneers practised the whale-fishery near Greenland soon after the year 1300; seven different kinds distinguished by external figure or internal conformation; are gregarious animals; make migrations from one ocean to another, and generally resort where they have the least disturbance; great Greenland whale; its description; from sixty to seventy feet long; the head one-third of its bulk, its hearing is acute; breathes air at the surface of the water, and cannot remain under it like other fishes; it blows loudly through the spout-holes, and most fiercely when wounded; whalebone different from the bones of the body; the fins are from five to eight feet long; the throat is narrow; nothing larger than a herring can be swallowed; the tail, its only weapon of defence, is twenty-four feet broad, and strikes hard blows; one seen by Ray marbled, with the figures 122 distinctly marked upon it; the blubber and other parts turn out to a very good account; the flesh palatable to some nations; the female and male keep much together; their fidelity exceeds that of birds; do not cross breeds; she goes with young nine months, is then fatter than at other times; produces two breasts and teats at pleasure; suckles her young a year, and how; is very tender of them; defends them fiercely when pursued; instance of it; dives with them, and comes up soon to give them breath; during the first year called shortheds, and then yields fifty barrels of blubber; at two years they are called stunts, and after that skull-fish; the food of this animal an insect called medusa by Linnæus, and walfischoas by the Icelanders; pursues no other fish, and is inoffensive in its element; the whale-louse, of the shell-fish kind, sticks to its body as to the foul bottom of a ship, gets under the fins, and eats through the skin into the fat; the sword-fish affrights the whale, avoids the stroke of its tail; bounds upon its back, and cuts into it with the toothed edges of its bill; the killer, a cetaceous fish of great strength, with powerful teeth, beset the whale as dogs do a bull, tear it down, and then devour only its tongue; old manner of taking the whale; improvements hinted, iii. 349, 350.

Whale (Spermaceti.) See *Cachalot*.

Wheat and currants, swallowed whole, indigestible to man, iii. 74.

Wheat-ear, a short-billed bird of the sparrow kind, thought foreign, iii. 197.

Whin-chat, a slender-billed bird of the sparrow kind, iii. 196.

Whip-snake, a very venomous serpent of the East, is five feet long, and its bite kills in six hours time; happy preservation from one of them, iv. 147.

Whirlpool, the central point always lowest, and why, i. 121; manner in which it is formed, 154; those of the ocean particularly dangerous; extraordinary one upon the coasts of Norway, called the *Maelström*, 155, 156.

Whirlwind, the most rapid formed by united contributions of minerals, vegetables, and animals, increasing the current of air, i. 195.

Whiskers, a man without them formerly considered as unfit for company in Spain ; Nature denying, Art supplied the deficiency ; a Spanish general borrowing money of the Venetians, pawned his whiskers, and took care to release them ; part of the religion of the Tartars consists in the management of their whiskers, and they waged war with the Persians as infidels, whose whiskers had not the orthodox cut ; the kings of Persia wore them matted with gold thread, and the kings of France, of the first races, had them knotted and buttoned with gold, i. 282, 283.

Whiston, his reasoning concerning the theory of the earth, i. 23, 24 ; finds water enough in the tail of a comet for the universal deluge, 26.

White, the natural colour of man, all other tints proceed from greater or lesser heat of climate ; among the white races of people our own country bids fairest for pre-eminence, i. 358.

Whitebait, shoals appear near Greenwich in July, iii. 416.

Whitenose, the moustoc, monkey of the ancient continent, a beautiful little animal ; its description ; a native of the Gold Coast, ii. 382.

Whitethroat, a slender-billed bird of the sparrow kind, living upon insects, iii. 196.

Widgeon, a variety of the European duck, described, but best known by its whistling sound, iii. 301.

Wild man of the woods. See *Ouran-outang*, ii. 357.

Wind, a current of air ; artificial ; causes assigned for the variety, activity, continual change, and uncertain duration of it ; in what manner to foretel the certainty of a wind, as the return of an eclipse ; to account for variations of wind upon land, not at present expected ; recourse to be had to the ocean, and why ; in many parts of the world the wind pays stated visits ; in some places they blow one way by day, and another by night ; in others, for one half-year they go in a direction contrary to their former course ; in some places the winds never change ; the wind which never varies is the great universal wind, blowing from the east to the west, in all extensive oceans, where the land does not break the general current ; the other winds are deviations of its current ; many theories explain the motion of the winds ; that of Dr. Lyster ; theory of Cartesius ; Dr. Halley's more plausible, i. 194 to 197.

Winds (Trade) blow from the poles towards the equator ; were the surface of the globe sea, the winds would be constant, and blow in one direction ; various circumstances break its current, and drive it back against its general course, forcing it upon coasts that face the west ; want of a true system of trade winds, supplied by an imperfect history of them ; north wind prevails during October, November, December, and January, in the Atlantic, under the temperate zone ; north-wind reigns during the winter in Nova Zembla, and other arctic countries ; south-wind prevails during July in the Cape de Verd islands ; north-west-wind blows during September at the Cape of Good Hope ; regular winds produced by various causes upon land ; ancient Greeks first observed them ; in general, wherever a strong current of water there is a wind to attend it ; regular winds produced by the flux and reflux of the sea ; winds called monsoons ; some peculiar to certain coasts ; south-wind constant upon those of Chili and Peru ; other winds peculiar to various coasts, i. 198 to 201.

Winds at land puff by intervals, and why ; not so at sea ; east-wind more constant than any other, and generally most powerful ; wind blowing one way and clouds moving another, forerunners of thunder ; cause of this surprising appearance remains a secret ; from sea, generally moister than those over tracts of land, more boisterous in spring and autumn than at other seasons ; their force does not depend upon velocity alone, but also upon density ; reflected from sides of mountains and towers, often more powerful than in direct progression ; raise sandy deserts in one country to deposit them upon some other ; south-winds in summer so hot in Egypt as almost to stop respiration, and produce epidemic disorders, continuing for any length of time ; deadly along the coasts of the Persian Gulph, and of India ; assume a visible form, i. 203 to 206.

Windpipe in men has a lump not seen in women, i. 285¹; makes convolutions within a bird, and is called the labyrinth, this difference obtains in birds seemingly of the same species, iii. 42; strange in the throat of the crane, 228; of the bittern, 242; in the wild swan, 301.

Wings of birds, their description; bastard wing, iii. 38; flap of a swan's wing breaks a man's leg; a similar blow from an eagle lays a man dead instantly, 39; of butterflies, distinguish them from flies of other kinds; their number and beautiful colours, iv. 242.

Winter beginning round the poles, the misty appearance of heat in southern climates is there produced by cold, i. 222.

Wistiti, a monkey of the sagoin kind, remarkable for the tufts of hair upon its face, and its annulated tail, ii. 383.

Volga, its length; abounds with water in May and June; at other times very shallow; the English disappointed in a trade into Persia through it, i. 123; receives thirty-three lesser rivers in its course, 227; and has seventy openings into the Caspian sea, 80.

Wolf, wild dogs partake of the disposition of the wolf; the wolf taken young is gentle only while a cub; as it grows older, discovers its natural appetite of rapine and cruelty, ii. 187; experiments prove neither wolf nor fox of the same nature with the dog, but each a distinct species, 199; a fierce, strong, cunning, carnivorous quadruped, externally and internally so nearly resembling the dog, they seem modelled alike, yet have a perfect antipathy to each other; description of the wolf; principal distinction from the dog is the eye, which opens slantingly upwards in the same direction with the nose; also the tail, is long, bushy, hanging lank; the wolf lives about twenty years; it is not much with those of his kind, yet hunts in packs with them; quarrelling, they devour each other; is watchful and easily waked; supplied with water, lives four or five days without food; carries off a sheep without touching the ground, and runs with it swifter than his pursuers; smells a carcase at a great distance; leaving the wood, goes out against the wind; particularly fond of human flesh; follow armies, and arrive in numbers upon a field of battle; two or three wolves keep a province for a time in continual alarm; distinguished by huntsmen into young, old, and great wolf; manner of hunting them; young dogs shudder at their sight; the wolf killed, no dogs show an appetite to enjoy their victory; the flesh so very indifferent, no creature eats it but the kind itself; breathe a most fœtid vapour from their jaws; often die of hunger after running mad by furious agitations; season for coupling lasts but fifteen days; no strong attachment appears between male and female; seek each other only once a year; couple in winter, several males then follow one female, dispute cruelly, growl, and tear each other, and sometimes kill that preferred by the female; she flies from all with the chosen when the rest are asleep; males pass from one female to another; time of pregnancy about three months and a half; couple like a dog, and the separation hindered by the same cause; bring forth from five to six, or nine at a litter; the cubs brought forth with eyes closed; young wolves play with hares or birds brought by their dams, and end by killing them; able to engender when two years old; France, Spain, and Italy, much infested with them; England, Ireland, and Scotland, happily free; King Edgar first attempted to rid this kingdom, and in what manner; Edward I. issued a mandate to Peter Corbet for the destruction of them; some quite black, some white all over; found in Asia, Africa, and America; in the East trained up for show, taught to dance and play tricks; one thus educated sells for four or five hundred crowns; in Lapland the wolf never attacks a rein-deer when haltered; wolves of North America used in hunting; caught in pit-falls; a wolf, a friar, and a woman, taken in one the same night, 202 to 212.

Wolf, (*Golden*) the Latin name for the Jackal, ii. 218.

Wolf-fish, the anarbus; a soft-finned apodal fish; its description, iii. 402.

Womb, history of the child in the womb, i. 251 to 256; of the hare divided in two, as a double organ, one side of which may be filled, while the other remains empty, ii. 258; description of the false womb of the opossum, 386, 387.

Women, some continue pregnant a month beyond the usual time; those on Africa deliver themselves, and are well a few hours after, i. 256; in barbarous

countries, the laborious duties of life thrown upon the women; the chief and only aim of an Asiatic is possession of many women; instance in our own country of a fine woman married to an eunuch; a principal employment of those of Thibet is reddening the teeth with herbs, and making their hair white, 269 to 272; the body arrives at perfection sooner than in men; the persons of women as complete at twenty as those of men at thirty, 273; less apt to become bald than men; Mr. Buffon thinks they never become bald; there are too many instances to the contrary, 277; lower eyelids drawn downwards when with child; the corners of the mouth also; then likewise high shouldered; circumstances under which the midwives call them all mouth and eyes, 287; the shoulders narrower, and the neck proportionably longer than in men, 289; first impulse of savage nature confirms women's slavery; the next of half barbarous nations appropriates their beauty; and that of the perfectly polite engages their affections, 296; the bones, cartilages, muscles, and other parts of the body, softer than in men; a woman of sixty has a better chance than a man of that age to live to eighty; women longer in growing old than men, 399; in the polar regions as deformed as the men, 346; women of India described; marry and consummate at eight, nine, or ten years old, and have children at that age; cease bearing before the age of thirty; those of savage nations in a great measure exempt from painful labours, 352; after a catalogue of deformities, Linnæus puts down the slender waists of women in Europe, by strait lacing destroying their health, through a mistaken notion of improving their beauty, 362; remarkable instance of the power of imagination upon the fœtus, 363.

Woods, in Britain, cut down by the Romans, and for what reason, i. 166.

Woodcock, or *cock of the wood*, of the grouse kind; places which this bird inhabits; how distinguished from the other birds of the poultry kind; the delicacy of its flesh; its food and habitation; amorous desires first felt in spring; keeps to the place where he first courts, and continues till the trees have their leaves, and the forest is in bloom; its cry, clapping of wings, and ridiculous postures in this season; during which the females, attending his call, are impregnated; sportsmen use this time to fire at them, and take many while thus tame, though at others it is most timorous and watchful; the female much less than her mate, and so unlike him in plumage, she might be mistaken for another species; number and size of the eggs; she hatches them without the cock, and when obliged to leave them in quest of food, so covers them with moss or leaves, it is difficult to find them; she is then extremely tame and quiet; keeps her nest, though attempted to be driven away; the young being hatched, they run with agility after the mother, though scarcely disengaged from the shell; their food ants' eggs, and wild mountain berries, older, they feed upon the tops of hether, and cones of pine-trees; are hardy; the clutching time over, the young males forsake the mother, keep together till spring, when the first genial access sets them at variance for ever; fight each other like game-cocks, and easily fall a prey to the fowler, iii. 138 to 141.

Woodcock, bird of the crane kind; its dimensions; food, iii. 253.

Woodchat, a rapacious bird; third kind of the butcher bird, iii. 107.

Woodlouse, its description; has three varieties, iv. 183.

Woodpecker, of this bird are many kinds and varieties in each; general characteristics; description of the *green woodpecker*, or *woodspite*; called the *rain-fowl* in some parts; its food; its tongue, the instrument for killing and procuring food; want that intestine which anatomists call the cæcum; in what manner they make nests, and how delicate in the choice; number of eggs; nest in warmer regions of Guinea and Brasil; *little woodpecker*, called by the natives of Brasil *guiratemgu*, iii. 162 to 166.

Woodward, his essay towards a natural history; detail of it, 22, 23.

Wool, the Spanish finer than ours; but in weight not comparable to that of Lincoln or Warwickshire; some Spanish wool required to work up with it, ii. 60.

Worms of different kinds infest each species of fish, iii. 421; sea-worms make the shells of fishes their food, iv. 41; within the body of the caterpillar, devour its entrails without destroying its life, 249.

Worm, (*blind*) of the serpent kind; lies torpid all winter, iv. 151.

Worm, (*froth*) an insect in that sort of substance on the surface of plants, iv. 220:

Worm kind, general description of the earth-worm, iv. 310.

Wrasse, the labrus, of the prickly-finned thoracic kind, iii. 400.

Wren and golden-crowned wren, slender-billed birds of the sparrow kind, iii. 196; *willow-wren*, a warbling bird of the sparrow kind, 198.

Wrinkles, whence those of the body and face proceed, i. 338.

Wryneck, or cuckoo's attendant, a little bird most active in the chase of the young cuckoo, iii. 172.

X.

Xiphias, or the sword-fish, of the prickly-finned apodal kind, iii. 398.

Y.

Yellowhammer, a small bird of the sparrow kind, iii. 197, 198.

Young people sometimes cease growing at fourteen or fifteen, i. 273.

Z.

Zealand, inundation there, in which many villages were and remain overflowed, i. 162.

Zebra, the most beautiful, but wildest animal; a native of the southern parts of Africa; nothing exceeds the delicate regularity of its colour; description; watchful and swift; its speed a proverb among Spaniards and Portuguese; stands better upon its legs than a horse; in what countries found; the Portuguese pretend to have tamed, and sent four from Africa to Lisbon, to draw the king's coach; some sent to Brasil could not be tamed; Merolla asserts when tamed, they are still as estimable for swiftness as beauty; their noise resembles the confused barking of a mastiff dog; in two, the author saw the skin below the jaw, upon the neck, hung loose in a kind of dewlap; they are easily fed; some in England eat bread, meat, and tobacco; the Emperor of Japan made a present of sixty thousand crowns value, for one received from the governor of Batavia; the great Mogul gave two thousand ducats for another; African ambassadors to the court of Constantinople, bring some with them, as presents for the Grand Seignior; zebra and wild ass of a very different species, ii. 31 to 36.

Zebu, the barbary cow, and the grunting and Siberian cow, are but different races of the bison, ii. 54.

Zeiran, name of the fourth variety of gazelles, by Mr. Buffon, ii. 77.

Zembla, (*Nova*) north-wind reigns there during winter, i. 200; a description of its inhabitants, 346.

Zeus, or doree, of the prickly-finned thoracic kind; its description, iii. 401.

Zibet, one of the two species of the civet, according to Mr. Buffon; distinction between them, ii. 248.

Zone, (*Temperate*) properly speaking the theatre of natural history, i. 16.

Zone, (*Torrid*) in the centre the heat very tolerable, in other places the cold painful; temperature and advantages of perpetual spring under it, i. 90; lightning there not fatal or dangerous, 218; has the largest quadrupeds; all fond of the water, ii. 52.

Zoophytes, name of vegetable nature endued with animal life, iv. 307; first class of zoophytes, 309; all the tribe continue to live in separate parts; one animal by cuttings divided into distinct existences, sometimes into a thousand, 313; second class, 314.

Zorille, a stinkard of the weasel kind; resembles the skink; is smaller, and more beautifully coloured, ii. 244.

FINIS.

ous clay, and tapers into a pyramidal form. This habitation is constructed with great artifice; and the cells are so numerous and even, that a honey-comb scarce exceeds them in number and regularity.

The inhabitants of this edifice seem to be under a very strict regulation. At the slightest warning they will sally out upon whatever disturbs them; and if they have time to arrest their enemy, he is sure to find no mercy. Sheep, hens, and even rats, are often destroyed by these merciless insects, and their flesh devoured to the bone. No anatomist in the world can strip a skeleton so completely as they; and no animal, how strong soever, when they have once seized upon it, has power to resist them.

It often happens that these insects quit their retreat in a body, and go in quest of adventures. "During my stay," says Smith, "at Cape Corse Castle, a body of these ants came to pay us a visit in our fortification. It was about day-break when the advanced guard of this famished crew entered the chapel, where some negro servants were asleep upon the floor. The men were quickly alarmed at the invasion of this unexpected army, and prepared, as well as they could, for a defence. While the foremost battalion of insects had already taken possession of the place, the rear-guard was more than a quarter of a mile distant. The whole ground seemed alive, and crawling with unceasing destruction. After deliberating a few moments upon what was to be done, it was resolved to lay a large train of gunpowder along the path they had taken: by this means, millions were blown to pieces; and the rear-guard perceiving the destruction of their leaders, thought proper instantly to return and make back to their original habitation."

The order which these ants observe, seems very extraordinary; whenever they sally forth, fifty or sixty larger than the rest are seen to head the band, and conduct them to their destined prey. If they have a fixed spot where their prey continues to resort, they then form a vaulted gallery, which is sometimes a quarter of a mile in length; and yet they will hollow it out in the space of ten or twelve hours.*

* But far exceeding in wisdom and policy the Bee, the Ant, or the Beaver, is the White Ant inhabiting the plains of East India, Africa, and South America. The animals of this extraordinary community consist

CHAP. VI.

OF THE BEETLE, AND ITS VARIETIES.

HITHERTO we have been treating of insects with four transparent wings, we now come to a tribe with two transparent wings, with cases that cover them close while at rest, but which allow them their proper play when flying. The principal of these are the Beetle, the May-bug, and the Cantharis. These are all bred like the rest of their order, first from eggs, then they become grubs, then a chrysalis, in which the parts of the future fly are distinctly seen; and, lastly, the animal leaves its prison, breaking forth as a winged animal in full maturity.

Of the Beetle there are various kinds; all, however, concurring in one common formation of having cases to their wings, which are the more necessary to those insects, as they often live under the surface of the earth, in holes which they dig out by their own industry. These cases prevent the various injuries their real wings might sustain, by rubbing or crushing against the sides of their abode. These, though they do not assist flight, yet keep the internal wings clean and even, and produce a loud buzzing noise when the animal rises in the air.

If we examine the formation of all animals of the beetle kind, we shall find, as in shell-fish, that their bones are placed externally, and their muscles within. These muscles are formed very much like those of quadrupeds, and are endowed with such surprising strength, that, bulk for bulk, they are a thousand times stronger than those of a man.—The strength of these muscles is of use in digging the animal's subterraneous abode, where it is most usually hatched, and to which it most frequently returns, even after it becomes a winged insect, capable of flying.

of working insects or labourers, about half an inch long, having six feet, and no eyes; fighting insects or soldiers, about an inch long, with a large head, and no eyes; and the perfect male and female insect, which alone are furnished with wings. They build pyramidal structures, ten or twelve feet in height, and divided into appropriate apartments. These are so firmly cemented together, that they will easily bear the weight of four or five men to stand upon them; and in the vast plains of Senegal, they appear like the huts of the natives. After impregnation, the abdomen of the female grows to a prodigious bulk, and she actually protrudes to the amount of eight thousand eggs in twenty-four hours.